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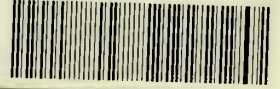
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MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

1, Mandolin; 2, Violin; 3, Spinnet; 4, Harp; 5, Saxhorn; 6, Flute; 7, Guitar; 8, Violoncello; 9, Banjo.

The Book of the Home

A Practical Guide to
Household Management

Produced under the General Editorship of

H. C. DAVIDSON

Assisted by

OVER ONE HUNDRED SPECIALISTS

With Coloured Plates and Numerous Illustrations

Divisional-Vol. VIII

LONDON
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1901

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Proprietary Schools.—The most notable proprietary schools, *i.e.* self-supporting schools managed by a company, are those belonging to “The Girls’ Public Day Schools Company” and “The Church Schools Company”, the former numbering thirty-four schools in 1895 and the latter twenty-six. The fees range from nine to fifteen guineas a year. The schools may be classed as first and second grade. In the latter the leaving age is about sixteen, and the education is at a cheaper rate. The supply of the very best and highest education is not unstinted, but there are a few girls’ schools giving an education of this kind carried on successfully at fees of £18 or £20 a year.

Proprietary schools are much more popular for girls than for boys. The Boys’ Public Day Schools Company had in 1895 only five schools for boys as against sixty for girls.

There are other proprietary schools doing good work besides those just mentioned. Of these, attention may be drawn to a mixed boarding-school for Friends in the West Riding, known as the “Ackworth Friends’ School”.

Cheltenham Ladies’ College, founded in 1848 to correspond with the boys’ college in the same locality, is a proprietary school which ranks high. The education covers a wide field. There is a kindergarten department for children under eight and also a juvenile school for those between that age and twelve. A third department, known as the “School”, continues the education to the age of sixteen or seventeen, the pupils then passing into the college proper, where the most advanced are prepared for the London University and other examinations.

It is a day school, but there are a number of boarding houses in connection with it—for elder girls, St. Hilda’s College House, after the model of the hostel of similar name at Oxford. The Princesses’ Hall, newly built, is capable of accommodating fifteen hundred girls. Boarders and day pupils, of whom there are about six hundred regular pupils—nine hundred, including those taking up some special study—meet in the playground to play hockey and other games. The fees vary from nine to twenty-four guineas a year. There is but one scholarship at Cheltenham, reserved for the daughter of an army officer; but assistance is sometimes given to those who need it.

Another well-known proprietary school is Queen’s College, Harley Street, London, founded in 1848. The education is of a secondary character, the pupils entering at fourteen, and the course extending over four years. The pupils receive eighteen hours’ instruction a week, twelve of which must be taken in certain obligatory subjects, while the subjects of the other six are optional. An hour’s home work is required for each hour of class teaching. The fees are eight or ten guineas a term for the full course, but special classes can be taken. Several scholarships are available, the particulars concerning which can be obtained from the college. Connected with the college is a school for girls between the ages of five and fourteen, and a preparatory class for those above fourteen but not sufficiently advanced to enter the college.

This section would be incomplete without mention of St. Leonard's School, at St. Andrews, Fife; and Wycombe Abbey School, Bucks; which represent the most recent move in the public education of girls.

Designed after the model of the large public schools for boys, the two hundred boarders are accommodated in several houses, each under the charge of its own mistress. Every comfort is provided; separate cubicles furnished with every requisite, including a bath; separate tables and bookshelves for preparation, &c.

A broad and liberal education is aimed at, while the hours of study do not, even in the highest forms, exceed six hours a day; and a special feature is made of outdoor physical exercise.

The grounds are extensive, and ample opportunity is afforded for playing such games as cricket, hockey, fives, golf, tennis, and lacrosse.

The fees are high, being, roughly speaking, £100 a year without extras. A few day-girls are admitted.

The age of admission is from thirteen to fourteen.

At St. Andrews there is a preparatory school (St. Katherine's) for younger pupils, and at Wycombe Abbey a similar school is in process of organization.

High Schools.—The term High School is much abused, but speaking generally, it may be taken to mean a first-grade school, or at least a second-grade school of the best kind. Parents should ascertain whether a so-called High School is what it professes to be. The expression "High School System" adopted by some private schools is misleading.

A private school with fifty pupils cannot provide, at the same fees, education of the same quality as a public school with three, four, or five hundred pupils, but it may have advantages compensating for its greater expensiveness.

Polytechnic Schools.—There are also schools connected with polytechnics and technical institutions which afford a secondary education at moderate fees. The Regent Street Polytechnic School will serve as a type. In connection with the South-West London Polytechnic, Chelsea, there is a college for girls over fifteen.

Board Schools.—Primary education is provided in the board schools and state-aided voluntary schools. Sewing, laundry work, and cookery are taught, but the first only is obligatory. Schools which have not sufficient accommodation for cookery and laundry-work classes are usually connected with a centre to which the pupils are sent. Outside pupils may attend the classes on payment of a small fee. The cookery course extends over six months and the laundry work over three.

Final Education.—A very large number of the women of this country are obliged sooner or later to earn their own livelihood. In such cases those who have a systematic training in some definite line of work have a better chance in the fight for life than those who have only their half-forgotten school work to fall back upon. Apart from any such necessity, a good education greatly increases the interests, happiness, and influence of life,

broadens the intelligence and sympathies, and promotes steadiness of purpose; so that a good education is not wasted even upon women who marry.

Technical Education.—The domestic sciences, cooking, laundry work, housewifery, are subjects of which women have almost a monopoly. While most women know something of them, the importance of a systematic training is not adequately recognized. Moreover, a thorough training at a recognized college qualifies for teaching.

The initial step in the teaching of cookery was an exhibition of "food-stuffs" collected for the Science and Art Department in 1857. In 1873 commenced courses of lectures, illustrated by practical demonstrations, in connection with the International Exhibition. These became so popular as to lead to the establishment of "The National Training School of Cookery" in Buckingham Palace Road. The movement rapidly spread. Other schools sprang up all over the country, giving rise to a demand for trained teachers of cookery, which was further increased in 1882 by the grant offered by the Education Department for cookery in elementary schools. In 1890 a grant was offered for laundry work, and many schools arranged classes for the teaching of this subject. Since 1890 grants have also been made by the County Councils to schools for teaching the domestic sciences.

There are now about thirty schools whose certificates are recognized by the Education Department. Besides the original school in Buckingham Palace Road, the Battersea Polytechnic Training College has an excellent curriculum, of which technical chemistry in its application to domestic work forms an important branch. Certain scholarships are offered by the London County Council, tenable at these schools.

The "National Union for the Technical Education of Women in Domestic Science", which came into existence soon after the establishment of the National Training School, has been a principal agent in the spread of domestic knowledge. It has branches at Bath, Bristol, Glasgow, Gloucestershire, Leeds, Preston, Sheffield, and Wakefield.

Another school at Glasgow, not connected with the above union, is the Glasgow West-End School of Cookery.

The South Wales and Monmouthshire University College has a cookery school attached.

The Dorset, Devon, Suffolk, and Staffordshire County Councils have also established schools. The Norfolk and Norwich, the Northern Counties (Newcastle-on-Tyne), Northamptonshire (Northampton), North Midland (Leicester), Salisbury, Wiltshire, Chester, Manchester, Edinburgh, Liverpool, and Birmingham National Society's Schools complete the list of those recognized by the Department. In addition to the foregoing there are many private schools and classes in cookery, laundry work, dressmaking, millinery, housewifery, and other subjects. Cookery is sometimes taught in secondary schools, while instruction is given in many Board schools in both cookery and laundry work. Most of the schools mentioned, Kilburn

Orphanage of Mercy, and City and Guilds Institute give instruction in laundry work as well as in cookery.

Among the institutions affording instruction in dairy work whose certificates are recognized by the Education Department are the following:—Bath and West and Severn Counties Agricultural Society, Bristol Dairy-Farmers' Association, Durham College of Science, Eastern Counties Dairy Institute, University College of North Wales (Bangor), University College of Wales (Aberystwyth), University Extension College (Reading), and Warwickshire County Council Dairy Farm.

Classes in many other branches of technology are open to women at the Central Technical College, Exhibition Road; Finsbury Technical College; and other institutions, including polytechnics, technical institutions, and the technical classes of many colleges, &c. At the Central Technical College, chemistry seems to be the most popular subject among women intending to enter the tutorial profession. Women have already adopted other technical professions, lithography, photography, and cabinet-making, and the Royal Institute of British Architects has of late admitted ladies as associates. It is probable that the future will see many other branches of technical science taken up by women students.

It may be of interest to some persons to know that at the Northampton Institute, besides the usual domestic economy subjects, artificial flower-making is taught to women who wish to acquire proficiency in that occupation.

Attention should also be drawn to horticulture as an occupation for women. Thorough training may be obtained at the Swanley (Kent) Horticultural College, where the fees are from £70 to £80 a year for board, residence, and instruction. Bee-keeping, poultry-farming, dairy work, table decoration, and bouquet-making are among the subjects taught.

There is also a technical department at the Cheltenham Ladies' College, where instruction is given in china-painting, modelling, drawing for reproduction, repoussé work, bent iron work, wood-carving, marqueterie, plain needlework, dressmaking, and photography.

University Education.—University education is sought by many women as a preparation for certain professions, such as teaching, the higher departments of journalism, &c., and by many others simply from a desire for that higher culture which till recently has been almost wholly restricted to men. The institutions supplying the demand for such an education are in many respects similar to those for men. There are isolated colleges of university standing; and universities, examining, teaching, and residential. The classification of the universities under these three headings is not precisely the same for women as for men. For example, Oxford University, which, as far as men are concerned, is purely residential, does not require residence of women entering for its examinations, and therefore fulfils for them the functions of an examining as well as a residential university. In certain other important respects the position of women at some of the universities differs from that of men

they enjoy certain privileges and are subject to certain disqualifications. Mention is made of these differences in the account of the universities individually.

Unattached Colleges.—Of the colleges not forming part of any university, some are residential and for women alone; others are non-residential, and are open wholly or in part to women students.

At the Royal Holloway College, Egham, the fees, inclusive of board, are £90 a year.

At Bedford College, York Place, Baker Street, London, the fees for the classes vary from one to three guineas a term, and for residence from £50 to £60 a year. Scholarships are offered for competition. There are also an art school and a training department.

At Westfield College, Finchley Road, Hampstead, the fees for board, residence, lectures, and examinations are £35 a term. There are three entrance scholarships of from £35 to £50 a year for two or three years.

Cheltenham College prepares advanced students for the degree examinations of the London Universities.

The above colleges are for women only.

University College, Gower Street, W.C., admits women on the same terms as men to all its classes, except to those relating to the medical profession and engineering. There is a lady superintendent for the women students. Full particulars can be obtained from the secretary. The college is non-residential, but there is a college-hall for women at Byng Place, Gordon Square, the fees varying from £51 to £90 for the session.

Women studying medicine can obtain their instruction in the London School of Medicine for Women, 30 Handel Street, Brunswick Square, W.C. Those living at a distance can find accommodation at the hall in Byng Place.

King's College has a ladies' branch at 13 Kensington Square, W., where classes have been arranged to cover the curricula of the Matriculation and the examinations for the B.A. and B.Sc. degrees of the London University. There is also a hall of residence.

Students desiring to obtain good classes at low fees can do so at the Birkbeck Institute, Breems Buildings, Chancery Lane, London. The courses are adapted to meet the requirements of students preparing for the examinations of the London University.

Universities.—In the British Isles there are three universities which have not yet granted degrees to women—Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin.

At Oxford women, except in medicine, may attend most of the university lectures, and enter for the pass and honour examinations. Class lists are published, showing the position of the successful candidates, and certificates are granted to them. Though the regulations are less stringent than for men, the papers set and the rate of marking are identical for both, the difference being that women are allowed greater latitude with regard to the Previous Examination, and may proceed straight to honours without first taking the second public examination (Moderations), while residence is not enforced. It will be seen at once that this leniency diminishes the

value of the women's certificate. There is, however, at Oxford an association for the education of women which grants certificates to all women fulfilling the conditions required for the men's degrees. Intending students should apply for information to the hon. secretary of the association, Clarendon Buildings, Broad Street, Oxford.

There are one resident college and three halls, or hostels, for women at Oxford, the difference being that lecturers and tutors are attached to the former, while the latter are only boarding houses. Home students and others living in recognized lodgings are under the superintendence of an official of the association just mentioned.

At Somerville College a combined bed and sitting room is provided for each student, and the fees vary from £26 to about £30 a term, inclusive of tutorial but not lecture fees. At Lady Margaret's Hall the same accommodation is provided at fees of about £75 a year. At St. Hugh's Hall, where two students, having a bedroom each, occupy the same sitting-room, the fees are lower, varying from £45 to £66 a year. St. Hilda's Hall is another hostel for women. Scholarships are offered at Lady Margaret's and Somerville.

At Cambridge women are admitted to all the university and many of the college lectures, and they may enter for the Previous and Tripos but not the Pass examinations. They are only examined when they have fulfilled all the conditions required of men for the degree. As at Oxford, class-lists are published, showing the position of the successful candidates, and certificates are granted to them.

There are two residential colleges for women. At Girton the fees are £25 a term, inclusive of tuition and lecture fees. At Newnham the fees vary from £26, 5s. to about £33, exclusive of college fees. At both, valuable scholarships are open to competition. There is also a woman's hall of residence for graduates pursuing advanced work, the charges for board and residence amounting to from £50 to £60 a year.

Durham University, except in the divinity degree, makes no distinction between men and women. It has a hall of residence—Eslington Tower, Newcastle-on-Tyne—at which the fees for board range from £1, 1s. a week. There are, of course, college fees as well.

Of the other universities, London has admitted women to its examinations without restriction of any sort. There are many scholarships and exhibitions in connection with it, which are open to both sexes. For particulars apply to the Registrar, London University, Burlington House, W. As it is only an examining body, candidates for examination can obtain their instruction where and how they like.

Victoria University (constituent colleges—Owens College, Manchester; University College, Liverpool; and Yorkshire College, Leeds) opens its doors freely to women, except in the medical school. It also awards certificates in certain subjects to women students in the colleges.

The University of Wales (constituent colleges—University College of Wales, Aberystwyth; University College of North Wales, Bangor; and

University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff) allows women to share all its privileges on equal terms with men. Under certain conditions, women students are allowed to reside elsewhere than in the halls provided for them, namely, Alexandra Hall, Aberystwyth; the Women's Hostel, Bangor; and Aberdare Hall, Cardiff. The charge for board and lodging varies from £30 to £50 per session. Lecture fees can be compounded for about £10 per session, and many entrance scholarships and exhibitions are offered for competition.

At Edinburgh University, women are not able to graduate in either law or theology. Though allowed to take the medical degree, they must obtain their medical education elsewhere, generally at the Medical College and at the Edinburgh School of Medicine, both founded expressly for women at a time when instruction in that subject was difficult to obtain. Edinburgh, unlike the other Scottish universities, has a faculty of music, for the instruction and degrees of which women are eligible. The tutorial fees amount, roughly, to about ten guineas a year. There are two hostels for women, Crudeliu Hall and Crudeliu House, providing board and lodging at from 15s. to 25s. a week, but residence at either is not compulsory.

At Aberdeen University, certain restrictions exist with regard to the medical curriculum, but otherwise men and women stand upon the same footing as regards instruction and degrees, and the latter are allowed to compete for many scholarships. Provision is now made for the residence of women students at Castleton House, Old Aberdeen, at a charge of £1, 1s. weekly.

At St. Andrews University, the conditions are materially the same, the degrees in arts, science and medicine, and also the title of L.L.A., being conferred upon women passing the requisite examinations. Several bursaries are open to them. The women's hostel, which is within the grounds of the university, provides board and lodging for £60 a year. Enquiries should be directed to the warden.

At Dundee University College, which now forms part of St. Andrews University, women are admitted to all the classes, except the latter part of the medical curriculum. The courses answer to the requirements for St. Andrews, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and London Universities. Fees vary from about three to nine guineas a year for each course.

Glasgow University grants degrees to women, who study at Queen Margaret's College for Women. Enquiries should be addressed to the Hon. Sec., 2 Lawrence Place, Dowanhill, Glasgow.

Dublin (Trinity College), the third university which still withholds the degree from women, has recently admitted them, under certain conditions, to the examinations of the undergraduate course, but only as an experiment which may not be continued. The university lectures, free to the public, are open to both sexes.

The Royal University of Ireland, Dublin, is only an examining body. Women are eligible for all examinations, degrees and scholarships without restrictions other than are imposed on men. Some of the scholarships are

very valuable, being as much as £200 a year. The affiliated colleges are Queen's College, Belfast; Queen's College, Cork; and Queen's College, Galway.

Other Institutions for Advanced Work.—Women capable of advanced research work are allowed the use of the Faraday Research Laboratory of the Royal Institution, Albemarle Street, W., and graduates and others desiring to pursue their political studies, can do so at the London School of Economics and Political Science, Adelphi.

Supplementary Education.—For those who in after-life can find time, and are disposed to supplement the education, general or special, which they have received, there are organizations providing information of every grade and kind—evening continuation schools, polytechnics, technical institutes, university and other advanced colleges. A large portion of the work at all these institutions is done in the evening.

Scholarships.—There are not so many scholarships available for girls as for boys, and there is a great need for more of sufficient value to cover the expenses of secondary education. Most schools, colleges, &c., offer a few for competition, of which the particulars can usually be obtained on application. Some of the scholarships established by County Councils under the Technical Instruction Act are reserved for girls. Particulars can probably be obtained from the reports of the Technical Education Board of the County Council.

The London County Council offer scholarships of three grades—junior, intermediate, and senior—about one-third of them being usually awarded to girls. The junior scholarships are generally awarded to children in the public elementary schools who are under thirteen, have reached Standard VI., and the income of whose parents does not exceed £150 a year. They provide free education, and also books and accessories, at a higher grade board school or endowed secondary school for two years, with an allowance of £10 a year for board. The intermediate scholarships, which can be competed for by pupils under sixteen in the higher grade board or secondary schools, give free education till the age of eighteen in secondary or technical schools, with an allowance for board. The value of the senior scholarships is £90 a year. They are intended to enable students to complete their education at a university or at the Central Technical College. Students failing to obtain scholarships in some cases receive a bursary of £50. The London County Council also offers a number of art scholarships, some of which cover the expenses of an education, with a maintenance allowance.

There are a large number of scholarships for helping girls to obtain a training in domestic economy. The course usually lasts six months, but in some cases it may be prolonged. Some of these scholarships are given to pupils in the public elementary and others in the evening continuation schools. Scholarships covering a two years' course at the Domestic Economy Training School in connection with the Battersea Polytechnic are competed for by candidates between eighteen and thirty years of age.

Several valuable scholarships are given by the Science and Art Department, divided into royal exhibitions, national scholarships, and free studentships. They give a free education at the Royal College of Science, London, or in the case of the two first at the Royal College of Science, Dublin. With the exception of the free studentships, they carry a maintenance grant.

In art, the Department offers to winners of local scholarships, royal exhibitions, and national scholarships, free education and a maintenance allowance. The first of these are held at a local school of art, and the exhibitions at the Royal College of Art, South Kensington, or the Metropolitan School of Art, Dublin. The national scholarships, which are held at the Royal College of Art, are restricted to students engaged in certain trades. Two scholarships, one of £25 and the other of £11, called "Princess of Wales' Scholarships", are offered annually to the highest prize-holders at the National Competition. The candidates must be women students. There are also certain non-competitive free studentships and travelling scholarships. Particulars of all these scholarships, exhibitions, &c., and others, can be obtained from the *Science and Art Directory* (price 6*d.*), published by Eyre & Spottiswoode.

The Whitworth Scholarships and Exhibitions for candidates under twenty-six, who "have been engaged in a handicraft in the workshop of a mechanical engineer for at least three years", will not appeal to many women, but since, like those of the Science and Art Department, they are open to "all British subjects", they deserve mention here. The value of the scholarships is £125 a year for three years, and that of the exhibitions £50 for one year. For full particulars see the prospectus of the Whitworth Scholarships (price 5*d.*), published by Eyre and Spottiswoode.

CONTINENTAL EDUCATION.

France.—The public schools, or lycées, prepare girls as well as boys for the baccalauréat, which must be passed by all who desire to enter what was formerly known as the University of France, now represented by the Faculties of Arts (Lettres), Science, Law, Medicine, and Protestant Theology, which exist in various departments of France, and perform the double function of teaching and examining. The name University of Paris, long disused, was resuscitated in 1896 in connection with the Faculties of that town.

In some departments there are Free Faculties—*i.e.* Faculties not under State control. They are usually Catholic and differ only from those just mentioned in that they have no power to grant degrees. There are, also, the Free Schools of Nantes and Paris for scientific and literary instruction, and a number of colleges known as superior schools.

Instruction is given by means of lectures, *cours fermés*, *conférences*, and

practical work. The first are open to the public free of charge; the others can be attended only by registered students paying a fee of 30 francs a quarter. Women are admitted to most as registered students on the same terms as men, namely, they must hold the certificate of *bachelier de l'enseignement secondaire*. Under certain conditions the degree of a foreign university is accepted instead.

Some Faculties grant certificates to *auditeurs* (non-registered students). The conditions as to entrance and degrees vary. A few of the medical courses and all the Catholic Faculties are closed to women, but the latter are arranging special courses for them.

In Paris, Lyons, Toulouse, and Lisle all the five Faculties are represented. The first three towns are very important centres. Lyons has a well-equipped Medical Faculty which ranks next in importance to Paris, and has also, like Lisle, both State and Catholic Faculties in Arts, Science, and Law, with a free Faculty in Theology. It has also a State Faculty in Theology. Toulouse possesses a free Faculty in Theology and both free and State Faculties in Arts; also an astronomical observatory.

Bordeaux, Montpellier, and Nancy possess faculties in all branches of learning, except theology. Bordeaux adds to the usual equipment an astronomical and meteorological observatory, as well as a course dealing with the application of chemistry and electricity to industries.

The Academie of Aix possesses Faculties of Arts and Law, and is connected with a Science Faculty at Marseilles, a marine zoological laboratory, and the Marseilles free Faculties of Law and Medicine. It also has an astronomical observatory. Special courses in French language and literature for foreigners have been established at Aix, owing to the influence of the *Comité de Patronage des Etudiants Etrangers*, which has branches also at Lyons, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Montpellier, and Nancy.

At Caen, Dijon, Grenoble, Poitiers, and Rennes there are Faculties in Arts, Science, and Law, with preparatory medical schools.

There is a small academie at Clermont Ferrand, with Science and Art Faculties, and a preparatory school of medicine and pharmacy.

In Paris there are other advanced schools admitting women to their full advantages. Some of them grant diplomas, but they are not empowered to confer degrees. The most important are:—

The Collège de France (Place des Ecoles), teaching arts, science, and medicine.

The Louvre School, giving a three years' course in archæology, intended primarily for custodians of museums and libraries. The lectures are free.

Ecole pratique des Hautes Etudes, which supplies the practical instruction for the Collège de France, the Faculty of Medicine, and other educational institutions. In a few instances the professors have refused to admit women to their classes, but otherwise the courses are freely open to them.

Ecole speciale des Langues Orientales Vivantes, Rue de Fille, 2. Students, with some exceptions, are required to have taken a degree, and to be

between sixteen and twenty-four years of age. The lectures are free to the public, but registered students are charged 100 francs a year.

Museum d'Histoire Naturelle, Jardin des Plantes. Courses of public lectures on various subjects connected with natural history are given annually free of charge. Conferences and classes of practical work are held for registered students, who also have access to the collections. Natural history excursions are organized during the summer months. Women are eligible for all the classes and scholarships.

The training colleges—*écoles normales*, of which there are many in France—receive English student teachers, *répétitrices*, subject to their passing an entrance examination. English students will find it economical to become *répétitrices* at one of these colleges, where for 400 francs a year they are provided with a private room and board. With the exception of about two hours daily devoted to teaching English, their time is their own.

Germany.—The development in Germany of the secondary education of girls during the last quarter of a century has been largely due to the efforts of private societies. Schools established by philanthropic societies give an industrial and commercial education in domestic economy, telegraphy, and other subjects, and a great advance has been made along the whole line. The demand for public education for girls equal to that for boys has been yet more fully supplied since 1893 at Berlin and Carlsruhe by the establishment in each town of a girls' gymnasium, the curriculum of which includes everything that is required of boys for entrance into the universities. At Dantzic courses of instruction, known as real courses (*Realkursen*), intended to prepare women for the university were inaugurated in 1891; and at Berlin, the Victoria Lyceum, established for over a quarter of a century by a Scotch lady, provides instruction of university rank, but has no power to grant degrees.

Women have in some cases been admitted to the German universities as hearers. In a few cases the full courses have been opened to them, chiefly in the Philosophical Faculty, and occasionally in medicine and law, but this is only a concession of grace. Permission to attend lectures must be obtained from the Minister of Education for the State, and from the Rector of the university; but as the ultimate decision rests with the professor under whom the student proposes to work, it is often advisable to apply first to him. Foreign students should send their testimonials and passports.

Of the twenty German universities, Göttingen, Freiburg, Heidelberg, Erlangen, and Munich have granted degrees to women in the Philosophical Faculty. Giessen, Kiel, Königsberg, and Würzburg refuse them admission, while at Tübingen permission on a few rare occasions has been given. At Giessen women students are debarred rather by custom than by law. At Rostock a few professional teachers are allowed to attend lectures. At Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Greifswald, Halle, Jena, Marburg, Leipsic, and Strasburg women are admitted as hearers, but in the last two universities they are not officially recognized, and are dependent entirely upon the courtesy of the professors.

Belgium.—In Belgium, women are admitted to the State universities, Liège and Ghent, the two free universities at Brussels, but not to the Catholic university of Louvain. The University of Liège and the Université Nouvelle de Bruxelles have technical schools incorporated with them. The latter university has no power to grant degrees, but gives diplomas to successful students.

Italy.—In Italy, girls are educated in State schools and private boarding schools, many of which are convents. Women are not so well supplied with colleges and with elementary schools, but they can share the privileges of the universities equally with men. There are universities with arts, science, law, and medical faculties at Bologna, Cagliari, Catania, Camerina, Ferrara, Genoa, Messina, Modena, Naples, Padua, Palermo, Parma, Pavia, Perugia, Pisa, Rome, Siena, Turin, Urbino, and Sassari in Sardinia. At Florence and Milan there are two educational institutions of university rank, the former for arts and science and medicine, and the latter for philosophy. At Rome there are three schools of archæology belonging respectively to colleges and societies of French, German, and American nationality. The American admits women to courses of lectures on the same conditions as men. At Naples there is a zoological station with special arrangements for research work. Only competent persons can obtain permission to make use of the station, for which application should be made to Oxford or Cambridge University.

Other Continental Countries. — In most continental countries the restrictions and disqualifications which have hitherto hampered women in the higher branches of education have been largely, and in some countries entirely, removed. In Russia alone the movement is generally discountenanced.

At Zurich, in Switzerland, women are eligible for professorships, while Lausanne and Neufchatel provide holiday courses in French language and literature for foreigners. Women are admitted on an equality with men to the British and the American schools of archæology at Athens.

HOME GYMNASTICS.

There is no finer or more natural means of exercising the body than gymnastics, intelligently and properly practised, for they bring into action not merely a single group of muscles as is the case with many much-vaunted sports, but every muscle in the body. For various reasons it is not always possible to attend a gymnasium, but gymnastics can be equally well practised at home.

According to the Swedish or "Ling" system of "free exercises" no apparatus whatever is used in the drill, which is divided into four classes, viz. medical, educational, military, and æsthetical. Following this excellent system, the body can be perfectly well exercised without the assistance of irons or bars of any kind. At the same time, the use of simple apparatus, such as expanders, light-weight dumb-bells, Indian clubs, and wands, is sometimes to be recommended. These are the only instruments suggested in connection with the following gymnastics, and they will be found all that is necessary for ordinary purposes. Climbing ladders, vaulting parallel bars, leaping with a pole, and other such feats, can only be accomplished after certain fundamental exercises, with which alone the present article is concerned, have been mastered.

The chief object of gymnastics is to "limber" every part of the body, and prevent stiffness of the joints and muscles. The daily course, therefore, should be arranged in such a way as to comprise gymnastics which develop the neck, arms, wrists, waist, body, and legs; which, in fact, bring into action all parts of the body. The exercises for common use should be as simple as possible, but at the same time of real value in promoting suppleness of limb, expansion of chest, easy balance, and good carriage.

The best time for practising is early in the morning, immediately after the bath. It is not always convenient, however, to spare the necessary time before breakfast for gymnastics. In this case the exercises should not be performed until two hours (or better still, three) after the meal.

The beginner should not practise for more than fifteen minutes at a stretch at first, gradually increasing the time, and also the number of exercises, until three-quarters of an hour to an hour, with rests, may be given to them daily. At first the work should be very slowly, gently, and thoroughly performed, the operator carefully considering the intention and effect of each exercise upon particular muscles. It is a mistake to suppose that any good results will follow from the mere swinging of

dumb-bells backwards and forwards; violent and unintelligent exertion is likely to do more harm than good, by causing a bodily strain; in fact, insufficient is better than over-much exercise.

Another important point is regularity of practice. The object in view should be the healthy development of the muscles rather than the acquisition of abnormal strength—a point to be remembered with regard to the use of dumb-bells. Many err by using a too-heavily-weighted dumb-bell. It is impossible to give any set rules on this matter, as the actual weight must depend to a great extent upon the physique of the gymnast. It has, however, been laid down by recognized authorities, that, generally speaking, the dumb-bells should be about one-twentieth part of the weight of the person. In the case of a fairly strong man 6-lb. or 7-lb. dumb-bells, in that of a woman 2-lb. or 3-lb. dumb-bells, will for many exercises be of sufficient weight. When health has been achieved, strength will follow.

It is advisable, in addition to the morning drill, to practise for ten minutes every evening. From a systematic course of gymnastics twice every day the benefit derived will be immense. Those who cannot take their drill twice a day at the times recommended must take it once, and at their own convenience. Every one, however, should give at least ten minutes a day to bodily drill. The real object of gymnastics should be not only to exercise all the muscles of the body, but to exercise them in their due order. Thus, the first gymnastics should affect the upper part of the body, and as that becomes strengthened the rest of the muscles should be brought into action. A suitable short course for daily use can be arranged from the exercises given in this article, the number to be practised depending on the time at disposal.

All the following exercises are suitable for both sexes.

As much variety as possible should be brought into the daily course, and diverse new movements introduced. The gymnast will soon learn to invent actions for the benefit of any specially weak limb, or for the body generally.

Dress.—The dress of the gymnast should be loose-fitting. For a man it should consist of flannel trousers secured by a belt at the waist, a flannel shirt or woollen jersey, and low-heeled canvas shoes. A woman might wear bloomers and a blouse, or knickers and an upper part with a tunic belted at the waist, stockings, and canvas shoes with low heels.



Fig. 561.—Lady's
Gymnastic Suit.

One of the most becoming and appropriate dresses (see fig. 561) follows the latter model, and is made of dark blue or black serge, trimmed with flat white braid, about half an inch wide. It is cut square at the base of the throat, and has either a belt of white kid or sash of soft white silk, knotted at the left side.

General Rules for Gymnasts.—There are certain points to be borne in mind which apply to all gymnastics. The most important, perhaps, is the management of the breath. It is a general rule that the breath should be inhaled as the arms are raised, and exhaled as they are lowered; inhaled as the arms take a backward direction, exhaled as they are brought forward.

The breath, again, should always be inhaled through the nostrils, the mouth remaining closed; it may, however, be expelled through the lips, the force of the breath alone parting them, and even then but slightly.

In regard to these primary gymnastics, a point to be taken for granted and constantly remembered, unless the contrary is stated, is that the initial attitude to be observed is the "first position" ("attention").

First Position, or Attention.—Heels together; feet at right angles; arms hanging down close to the sides, body and head erect; chest up; waist held back; shoulders square (fig. 562). When dumb-bells are used, one is grasped in each hand, the axis of the dumb-bell horizontal, the knobs facing back and front.

When taking large steps or lunges, the foot is advanced from 30 to 40 inches, according to the stretch of the limb.

In performing many of the leg exercises, the hands, in order to obtain a better balance, are often placed on the hips (akimbo). When this attitude is adopted, the thumbs should point to the back of the waist, not to the front. A trial of both positions will at once show that when the thumbs are forward the chest is contracted, while with the thumbs in the reverse position the chest expands. Each exercise described should be repeated at first ten times in succession, gradually increasing to fifty times.

Dumb-bells in being lowered must never be allowed to drop by their own weight. The arm must be prepared to resist the weight in the downward movement, and to lower itself gradually and evenly.

It is a good plan to combine two or more exercises in the following order. First an arm exercise, such as thrusting the arms upwards; then a leg and body exercise, such as balancing on the heels or toes; finally, both exercises together.

Turning on the Feet.—The following, the Swedish method of turning on the feet, is one of the most graceful yet introduced. It consists of two movements. When the pupil desires to turn to the left, the feet being in the first position, he pivots on the heel of the left and toes of the right foot, the entire weight of the body resting on these parts



Fig. 562.
"Attention".



Fig. 563.
"Stand at ease".

while pivoting; from thence the right foot is brought up at a right angle to the left, this completing the turn. In turning to the right, the positions of the two feet are reversed.

EXERCISES WITHOUT INSTRUMENTS.

The following is a list of exercises to be performed without the use of any instruments:—

1. The first and simplest has for its object the easy and graceful poise of the head. Place the hands on the hips, the fingers being in front and



Fig. 564.



Fig. 565.



Fig. 566.

thumbs behind. The head should be gently moved as far as possible from side to side, but without any circular inclination (fig. 564).

2. Roll or swing the head round and round, very gently and slowly at first. In starting, the chin should sink on to the chest and the head move to the right; by this movement the chin is gradually raised until the throat is stretched to its fullest extent, the head having rolled round and sunk backwards. Continue to move the head towards the left, until the chin is again in its original position. The movement should be continuous, until six or a dozen circles as wide as possible have been described.

3. Place the left foot 12 or 14 inches to the left, and swing the body to the right—as far round as possible (fig. 565)—and to the left, the movement being free, and the arms taking whatever attitude is most natural to them in accordance with the sway of the figure.

4. Keeping the body erect and the limbs straight, rise slowly on the toe-balls and sink on to the heels (fig. 566). Repeat continuously. The

exercise may be varied in two ways. It is rendered more difficult if in sinking the heels are not allowed quite to touch the ground; and it may also be performed more slowly by counting ten while rising on the toes, and then remaining in this position until ten seconds have elapsed.

5. Bend the knees very slowly, and gradually sink the body as low as possible while keeping it straight. At the same time lift the heels from the ground (fig. 567). Rise and repeat. The movements in this and the preceding exercise should be practised until they can be performed without any jerkiness, and the muscles act evenly and regularly like a well-oiled machine.



Fig. 567.

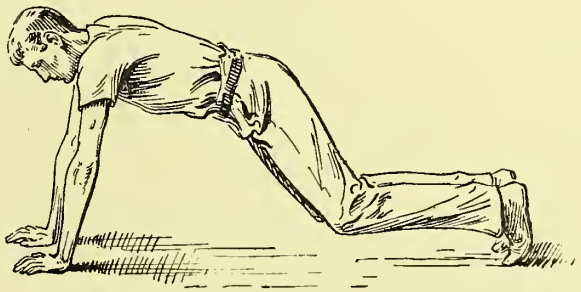


Fig. 568.

6. Hold the arms out level with the shoulders, or place the hands on the hips to help to maintain the balance. Lift the right leg off the ground, and swing it backwards and forwards, then lift the left leg and repeat the exercise.

7. Balance the figure on the right leg, bending the left leg backwards from the knee. Gradually sink until the left knee touches the floor. Rise and repeat. Here again the movement should be perfectly free from jerkiness. Exercise the left leg in a similar way. Then kneel with both legs simultaneously—a very difficult feat to perform gracefully.

8. Stand on the right leg, the arms akimbo or stretched right and left. Lift the left leg and point it outwards in front of the body, the knee being stiff. Remaining in this attitude, sink and raise the body. The lower it sinks the more difficult is the exercise.

9. Raise the leg and point it forwards. Then move it round in a circle, beginning the circle now from the right now from the left, for the sake of variety. Both legs should be exercised in the same way.

10. Lower the body until it rests almost on the heels, which must then be lifted from the ground, the weight of the body being supported by the toe-balls. From this attitude throw the body forward upon the palms of the hands, and let the feet slip a little backwards until the body is fairly outstretched, but not so much as to cause a strain (fig. 568). Alternately raise and sink the body by the action of the legs, which

should be bent from the knees when the body sinks. The arms must be kept straight all the time. The knees, as the body sinks, must just escape the ground. This exercise should be practised cautiously, and at first only once or twice in succession.

11. Lie flat on the back, the legs close together, the arms extended above the head and resting on the floor, the tips of the fingers meeting. From this position bring the arms forward, at the same time raising the body from the waist, and bend forward until the finger-tips touch the toes.

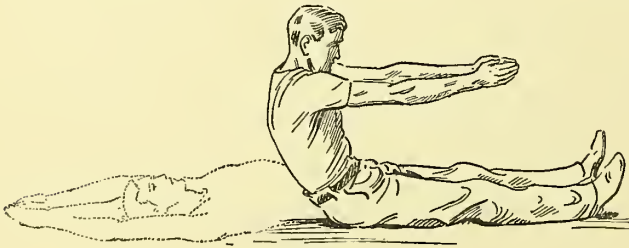


Fig. 569.

Then allow the body to sink gradually backwards to its original position, still keeping the arms above the head (fig. 569). This is a very difficult exercise.

12. Lie flat on the back, the legs close together, elbows bent and hands behind the head. Then lift the body to a sitting posture without moving the feet or legs. It requires hours and hours of practice to master this rather trying exercise, which, however, is relieved of much of its difficulty if a slight weight is put upon the feet. But this should only be done by a beginner.

13. Lying in the same position as in the last exercise, lift first one leg and then the other, replacing the right on the floor as the left is raised, and *vice versâ*. The knees must be rigid.

14. This is an exercise to teach the management of the breath and develop the muscles of the chest. Lying flat on the back, inhale deeply through the nostrils, then expel the breath through the lips.

EXERCISES WITH THE EXPANDER.

The elastic expander is a simple but useful contrivance by the aid of which some exercises of special benefit to the muscles of the chest may be performed. It consists of a band of stout silk, about 4 inches wide, with wooden rings at each end, and when not extended measures about 12 inches. Sometimes the rings are weighted. The expander is procurable at any shop selling gymnastic appurtenances, and is quite cheap. It is advisable to exercise with this before using dumb-bells, in the case of weakness or delicacy of the chest. Children especially should begin their gymnastics with the expander; properly used, it cannot but benefit the most delicate child.

The following is a list of exercises that may be practised with this instrument:—

1. Grasp the rings of the expander firmly, one ring in each hand, the knuckles inwards. Hold the arms straight out to their fullest extent,

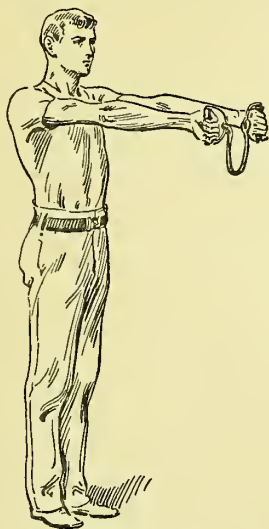


Fig. 570.—Expander Exercise, No. 1.

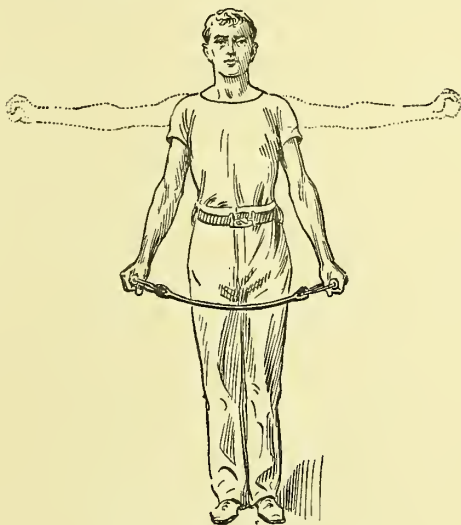


Fig. 571.—Expander Exercise, No. 4.

in front of the chest, without stretching the elastic. Then draw the hands out as far as the elastic will stretch, right and left, and bring them back to their original position, repeating the exercise at first ten times, and increasing gradually to fifty times.

2. Hold the arms as for exercise 1. Then move the right arm backwards and forwards, as far round to the right as possible, keeping the left arm quite still.

3. Reverse the previous exercise, moving the left arm only.

4. Hold the arms downwards in front of the body and just clear of it, without straining the expander. Draw the arms upwards and outwards till they are level with the shoulders; lower them to their original position,

and repeat. The knuckles can be either inwards or outwards. It is as well for the sake of variety to practise in both ways.

5. Hold the arms as before. Keep the left stationary while working the right up and down, as in exercise 4.

6. Reverse the previous exercise, using only the left hand.

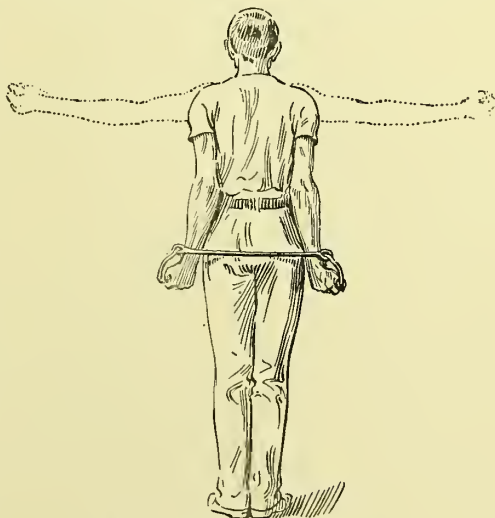


Fig. 572.—Expander Exercise, No. 7.

7. Grasp the rings with the knuckles outwards. Raise the expander and pass it over the head, lowering it at the back till the arms fall straight against the sides. Exercise the arms by raising them till in a line with the shoulders, and lowering them to their original position.

8. The position is the same as before. Expander at the back. Work the right arm only, raising it as high as possible, and drawing it towards the left, till the elastic held in both hands is perpendicular. Repeat the movement.

9. Repeat the previous exercise, using the left arm.



Fig. 573.—Expander Exercise, No. 8.

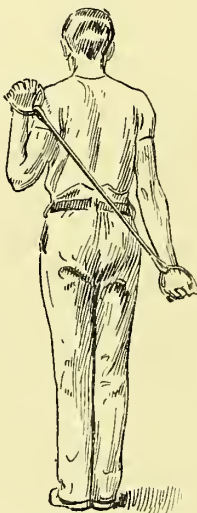


Fig. 574.—Expander Exercise, No. 10.

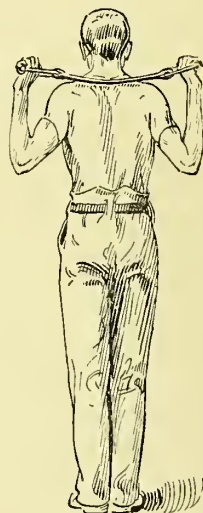


Fig. 575.—Expander Exercise, No. 12.

10. Hold the expander at the back of the body in a diagonal position, the right arm lowered to its fullest extent and clearing the body, the left arm bent at the elbow, the knuckles touching the shoulder. Outstretch the left arm, and bend it again, repeating the action several times consecutively.

11. The previous exercise with the right arm.

12. Hold the expander again at the back of the body, but level with the shoulders, the knuckles turned inwards, the elbows bent. Stretch the arms until they are in a line with the shoulders; then draw them back to their original position. Repeat the movement several times.

13. Hold the arms as in the preceding exercise, and work the right arm in the same way, keeping the left unmoved.

14. The previous exercise with the left arm.

15. Hold the expander at the back of the body on a level with the shoulders, knuckles inwards, elbows bent, so that the rings touch the shoulders. Extend the arms to right and left respectively, as far as possible, and bring them back smartly to the original position. Then

strike out with the right arm in an upward diagonal direction and lower the left arm; bring both hands back to the shoulders again, outstretch them horizontally, and repeat the exercise several times, reversing the positions of the arms.

16. Hold the expander in front of the body, the left arm hanging straight down and just clear of the figure. Bend the right arm, keeping the elbow close to the side, and bring the hand up to a level with the shoulders, the nails outwards. Then raise the right arm perpendicularly above the head, and bring it back to its original position. Repeat the action again and again.



Fig. 576.—Expander Exercise, No. 16.

17. With the left arm perform the same action as in the preceding exercise.

18. Hold the expander in the position indicated in exercise 1. Raise it, and draw it out right and left, passing it over the head and lowering it at the back until level with the waist-line. Pass it to the front again in the same way. Repeat.



Fig. 577.—Expander Exercise, No. 22.

19. Grasp the rings,

knuckles outwards. Raise the arms perpendicularly above the head. Stretch them out as far as possible to right and left, and return them to their vertical position. Repeat several times.

20. The attitude is the same as for the preceding exercise. Raise the arms, stretch out the elastic, and bring the arms down in front of the face till they are on a level with the shoulders. Raise them again, and repeat.

21. This is similar to the preceding exercise, with the difference that the expander is lowered at the back of the head instead of in front. The arms are then raised above the head, lowered again to the shoulder level, and so on.

22. Rest the left knee on the ground, the opposite leg being half raised, the sole of the foot on the ground. Hold the expander, knuckles outwards, in front of the body, keeping the elbows bent. Stretch the arms outwards and then upwards, bring the expander over the head, and lower it till level with the shoulders at the back. Then strike out with the right arm in an upward direction (diagonally), and at the same time lower the left arm until it is quite stretched out diagonally, in line with the right arm. Commence the exercise from this position. The right arm must be slightly bent, not fully outstretched. Pass the right arm round the back of the head and across in front to the extreme right,

and lower it; at the same time bring the left arm round in a curve, following the course of the right hand, and across the chest. Then pass the left hand over the head and bring it down to its original position, at the same time raising the right arm and carrying it over the head from the back to the point from which it started. The waist movement is important in this exercise; the body should wave gracefully in a circle, swayed as it were by the movement of the arms. The exercise must be repeated continuously, in a perfectly even manner without any jerkiness.

EXERCISES WITH DUMB-BELLS.

The following gymnastics, although designed with a special view to the use of dumb-bells, may also be performed without them:—

1. Stand in the first position or attitude of "attention". Hold a dumb-bell in each hand, and bend the lower part of the arm up and down from the elbow-joint till the knuckles touch the shoulders, the upper part of the arm remaining rigid. The exercise can be varied by altering the positions

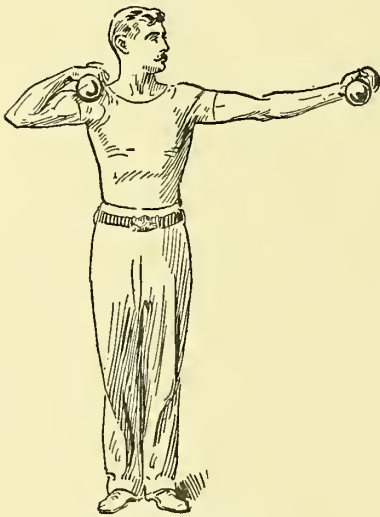


Fig. 578.—Exercise 2.

of the lower part of the arm and the hand. In one case, as the arms hang down close to the sides, the knuckles are turned outwards; in the other case they are turned inwards. Raise the arms from these positions and slowly lower them.

2. Hold the arms straight out to right and left from the shoulders. Bend the elbows until the knuckles touch the shoulder, then straighten them again. The



Fig. 579.—Exercise 4.

action of the arms can be in harmony or opposition, *i.e.* they can be expanded and closed at the same time, or while the right arm is extended the left can be closed, and *vice versa*, the head turning with each gesture towards the outstretched arm.

3. Hold the arms as in the previous exercise, then bring the hands forward in front of the chest until they meet (keeping the elbows stiff), and back again to the original position, the movement being very broad and circular. Repeat.

4. This exercise is on the same plan as the preceding one, but the arms must be moved backwards instead of towards the front of the body, until

the dumb-bells meet at the back and the shoulder-blades are drawn together. Exercises 3 and 4 can be combined after each has been practised separately.

5. This exercise imitates, as far as the hands are concerned, the movement of swimming, and is of equal benefit if performed with or without the dumb-bells. It is particularly good for the development of the chest. Keeping the elbows close to the sides, bring the hands to the centre of the chest. Then extend the hands forward to the full extent of the arms (just as a swimmer strikes out), separate them, and move the one to the right the other to the left, the elbows becoming straightened and bending again as the hands are brought back to their original position in front of the chest. The exercise should be repeated without break several times in succession, the movement being slow and deliberate.

6. Hold the elbows close to the sides of the body, and raise the lower part of the arms until the dumb-bells touch the shoulders. Then strike out

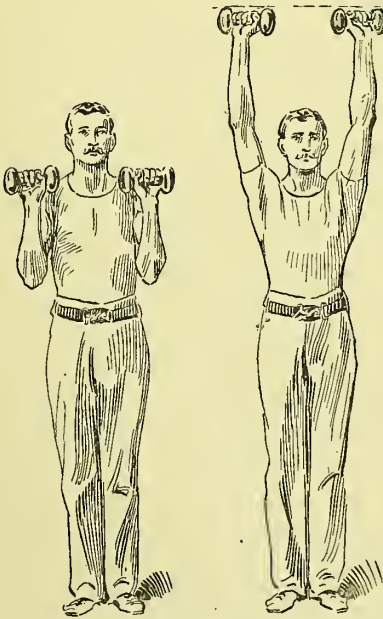


Fig. 580.—Exercise 6.

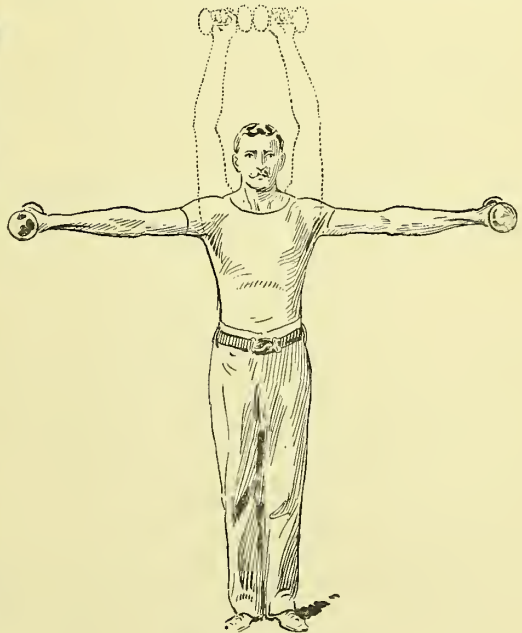


Fig. 581.—Exercise 7.

in an upward direction, stretching the arms to their full extent above the head, and bring the hands back to the shoulders. First exercise both arms simultaneously; afterwards move them in opposition, raising one while the other descends.

7. Expand the arms, to right and left, from the first position until they are level with the shoulders. Elevate them further, keeping the elbows rigid, until they are above the head and the dumb-bells meet, ball to ball, in a straight line. Then lower them slowly back to the first position. Throughout the exercise, which is of special benefit to the chest and arms, the shoulders must be pressed back for the expansion of the chest.

8. The preparatory attitude for this exercise is that of attention, the arms straight and close to the sides. Bend the arms from the elbows till the finger-knuckles touch the shoulders; straighten them upwards above the head; lower them to the second position. Strike out the arms sideways, level with the shoulders. Bend the arms till the dumb-bells touch the shoulders, the elbows being close to the figure. Repeat the movements without any pause between them.

9. In addition to the movements in the preceding exercise, after having brought the arms smartly back until the elbows touch the sides of the figure and the dumb-bells rest upon the collar-bones, strike out in a forward direction and bring back the arms again to the shoulders. Proceed as before, always introducing the forward thrust in its turn.

10. Hold out the arms in a line with the shoulders, the hands as usual grasping the dumb-bells by the bar. Then, keeping the elbows stiff, exercise the arms by a twisting gesture which brings the elbow first above and then below the arm, the movement beginning from the shoulder. It is astonishing how very much more lissome the arms will feel after this action.

11. Hold the arms as directed for exercise 10, but grip the dumb-bells in this case by the ball, not by the bar, the second ball falling below the hand. Turn the wrists round and round, in a series of circles, first from right to left then from left to right, keeping the arms rigid all the while.

This and the following exercise give great flexibility to the wrist.

12. Hold the dumb-bells by the bar, keeping the arms straight and level with the shoulders. Move the wrists only, not, however, in a circle, but inwards (towards the forearm) and outwards, or backwards and forwards.

13. Repeat exercise 3, and combine it with a breath exercise, inhaling through the nostrils as the arms are drawn back with the shoulders, and exhaling through the lips, without actually opening the mouth, as they are brought forward.

14. Hold out the arms to right and left, and swing them round and round in a circle, with first an inward and then an outward movement.

15. Stand in the first position, and bend the body from the waist to right and left alternately, until the hands

reach the knees, which throughout the exercise should remain stiff. As one arm is lowered the other must be bent upwards (inwards from the elbow). The dumb-bells, held in the hands as usual, help to balance the figure.

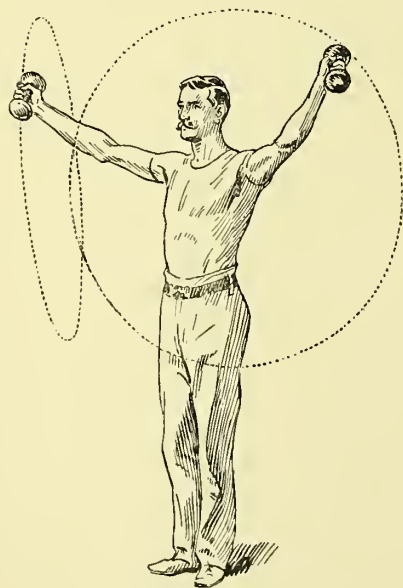


Fig. 582.—Exercise 14.

16. This also exercises the waist. Raise and keep both arms straight in front of the body, holding the dumb-bells vertically; keep the heels close together. Without moving the feet, and with as little movement as possible from the arms, turn the body from right to left and back several times in succession.

17. Raise the arms above the head, ranging the dumb-bells in a line, that is end to end, the palms of the hands being outwards. Without bending the knees, bring the hands downwards until they touch the ground, a few inches in front of the toes. Then raise the figure and bend the body slightly backwards, keeping the knees stiff. Repeat the exercise again without pausing.

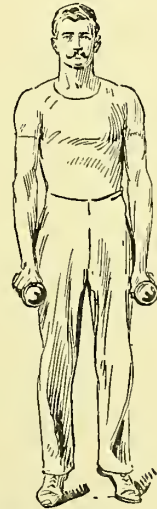
18. Make a quarter-turn of the body towards the right, then take a lunge forward with the right leg, bending it at the knee. At the same time



Fig. 583. — Exercise 18.



Fig. 584. — Exercise 20.



thrust out with the left arm. Then bring both arm and leg back to their original positions. The heel of the left foot must rise from the ground as the lunge is made, and sink back again as the right foot returns. With the forward movement of the body the left arm makes a natural inclination backwards. Reverse the attitude, striking out with the left leg and right arm.

19. Balance the body evenly, the arms hanging down close to the sides. Then raise one leg and shoot it out forwards, and bring it back sharply from the knee. Repeat the movement several times without pausing. Reverse the exercise by performing the action with the other leg.

20. The attitude for this movement resembles the first position, but the feet, instead of being close together, are about 8 inches apart. Bend the knees and lower the trunk almost to the ground, resting the dumb-bells upon the floor to right and left. Rise gradually until the body is straightened and balanced upon the toe-balls. Sink again and rise. The breath,

according to the rule already set down, should be inhaled as the body is raised, exhaled as it is lowered.

21. Stand again with the feet 8 inches apart. Elevate the arms above the head, and, starting from this position, bend the knees until they are within a few inches of the ground, the arms with the downward movement being bent at the elbows and the dumb-bells brought to the collar-bones. In rising again stretch out the arms above the head.



Fig. 585.—Exercise 21.



Fig. 586.—Exercise 22.

22. In preparing for this exercise place the feet about 10 inches apart, and bend the arms from the elbows (which remain close to the figure) until the dumb-bells rest upon the shoulders. Then lunge forward (as in fencing), first with the right arm and then with the left, advancing the hand to a point slightly above the shoulder-level. As the right arm is straightened, the left leg should be stiffened and the right slightly bent, the reverse of course being the case when the left arm is thrust forward. With the action of bending the leg the foot should rise on the toe-balls.

INDIAN CLUB EXERCISES.

For the most part Indian club exercises consist of rotary movements. The clubs, which are of wood and shaped like a slender elongated pear, vary in weight and size, and should be selected to suit the strength. The beginner should use light-weight instruments.

It is usually more convenient to exercise the arms singly at first, as rotary movements performed by both arms simultaneously cause the beginner some little confusion. The early exercises with the clubs consist of half-circular movements, which are not so difficult as those which describe the full circle.

The attitude to be assumed, unless otherwise stated, is again that of attention, the clubs being held one in each hand, the thumbs and fingers outwards.

The great art is to maintain a perfectly regular even swing. The true rhythm is everything. All the movements must be free from jerkiness and

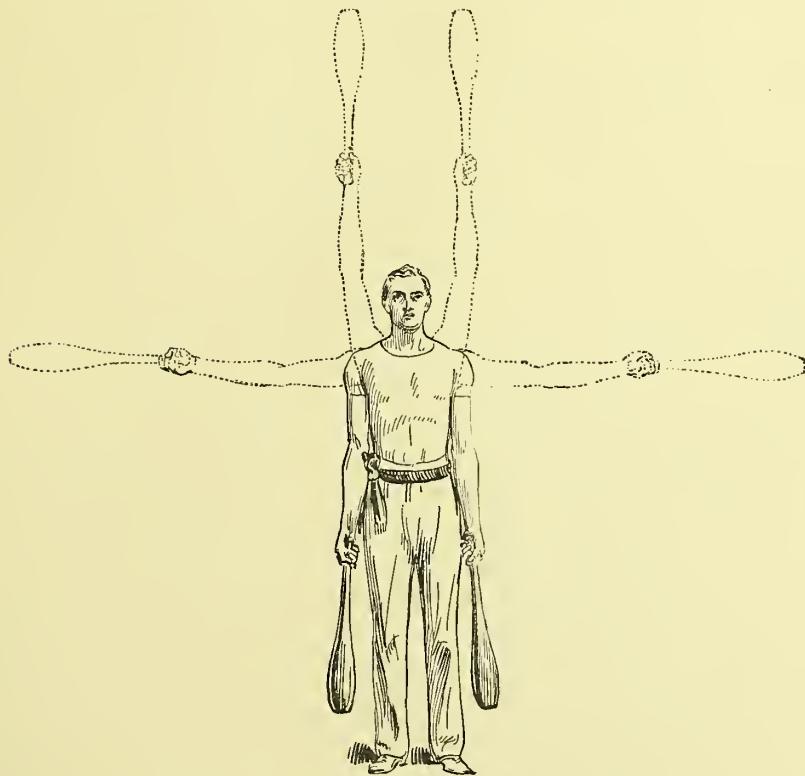


Fig. 587.—Exercise 1.

irregularity, otherwise the exercises will not assist the development of grace in gesture by loosening the joints and rendering action easy.

In the simplest exercises—those, therefore, which it is advisable to begin with—the arms remain straight. In more advanced exercises they are bent.

1. Hold the figure erect, the arms hanging straight and close to the sides, club in each hand. Raise the arms until they are level with the shoulders and pointing to right and left respectively, then move them upwards in a diagonal direction until they are vertical. Reverse the movements, and bring the arms down to their original position. Slowly count ten between each change of attitude.

2. Stretch out the arms to right and left in a line with the shoulders, move them back as far as possible, then round till they point straight out in front of the body, back again, and so on repeatedly. Keep the elbows rigid.

3. Swing the clubs forwards from the first position, until they are well

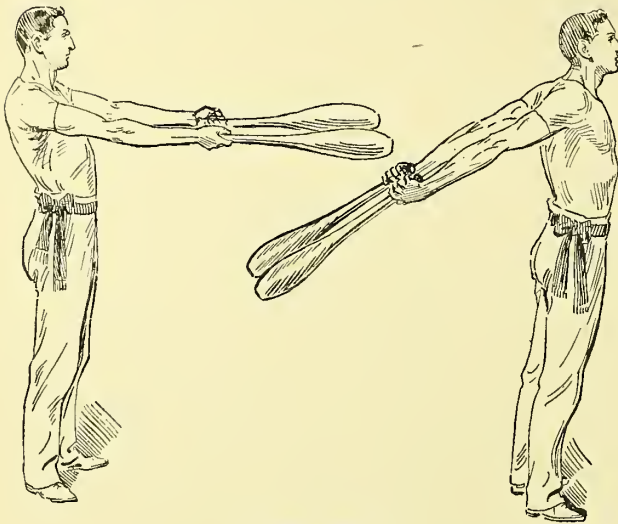


Fig. 588.—Exercise 3.

in advance of the body. Then swing them backwards, and continue these movements, keeping the elbows stiff.

4. Swing the clubs in a circular direction so as to meet in front of the body and at the back. The arms must be held as far as possible from the body.

5. Bring the clubs with an even swing forwards and upwards until the arms are ver-

tical, then lower them. This exercise can be varied; both arms can be worked in harmony, or the right arm may swing upwards while the left descends. Performed in the latter way the exercise encourages independent action of the arms.

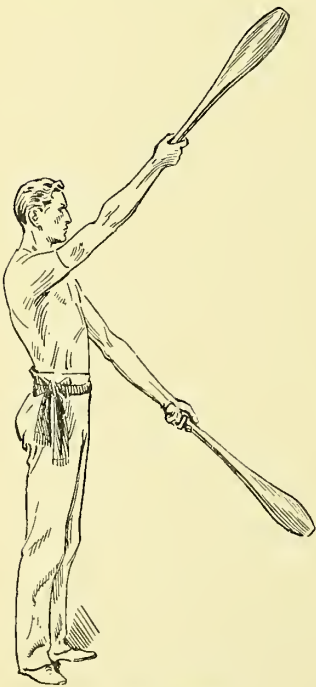


Fig. 589.—Exercise 5.

6. Swing the right arm round and round fifty times, then the left, then both arms, moving the body as little as possible. The swing should describe at one time an inward, at another an outward circle.

7. One of the prettiest of the club exercises is the "double circle". Hold the arms straight out to left and right, level with the shoulders. Move the right arm in such a way as to describe a circle, passing it in front of the body. When the arm has described three parts of the circle, or is straight above the head, move the left arm in the same way, always keeping the right arm the same distance in advance. Vary the movement by beginning with the left arm, the right following.

8. In this exercise both arms describe a circle simultaneously but in opposite directions. Hold the arms as for the preceding exercise.

Move the right arm upwards over the head, downwards so that at one moment it is level with the chest (the club pointing in the same direction as the left arm), and back towards the right. As the

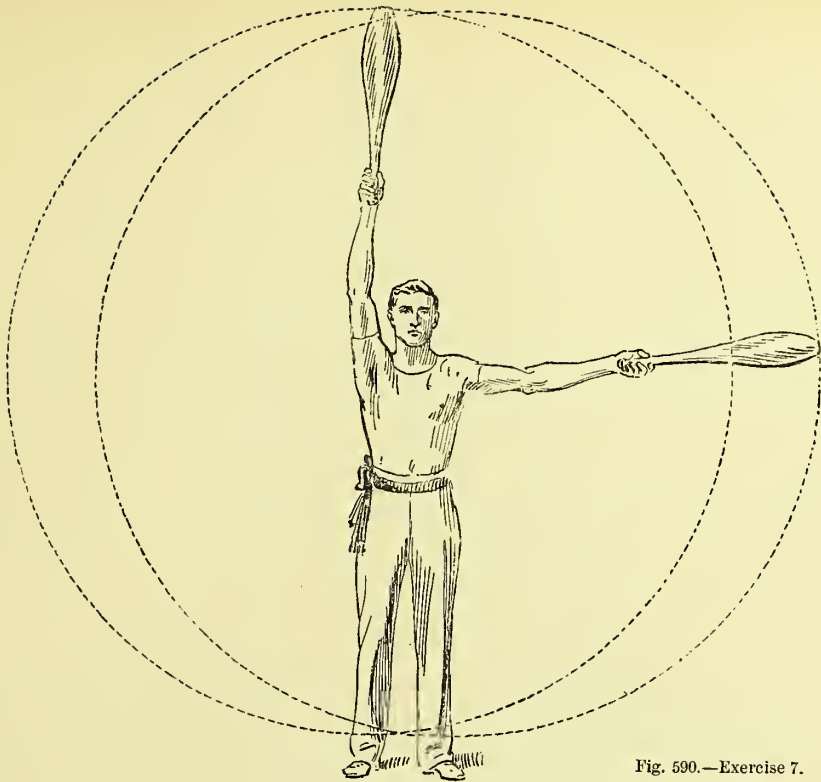


Fig. 590.—Exercise 7.

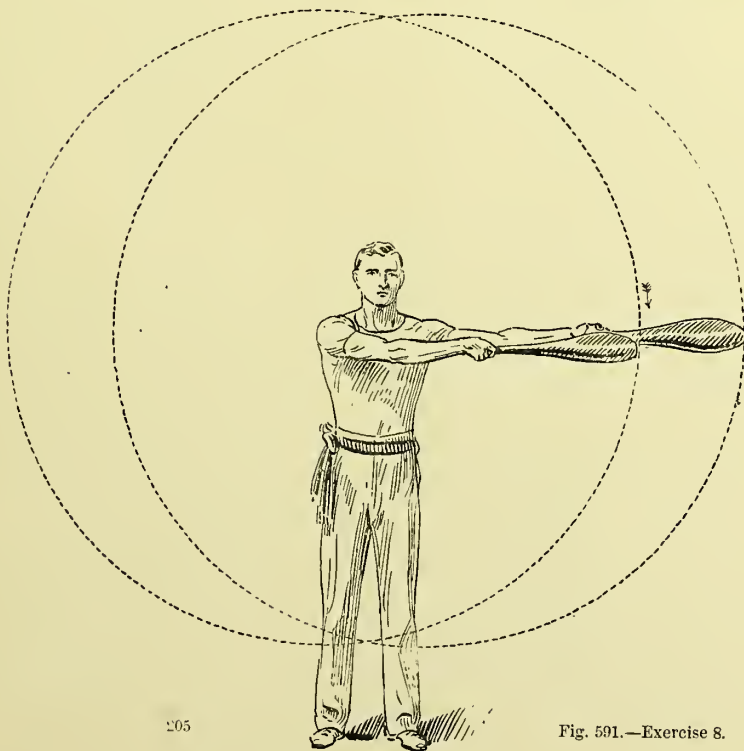


Fig. 591.—Exercise 8.

right arm crosses the body in front commence to move the left arm upwards over the head, round to the front and across the body. The exercise must be practised very slowly at first until the rhythm has been mastered and the arms work easily together.

9. This is an exercise that in the first instance should be practised with one arm at a time. Afterwards both arms can be worked together. In the former case the inactive arm hangs straight down at the side. Take a club in the right hand, and, raising the arm, bend it over the head, the club thus hanging down just in front of the left shoulder; this is the preliminary attitude. In beginning the movement raise the right arm slightly, so that the club "clears" the shoulder. Then bring the arm down at the back of the head and circle it round to the front till it resumes its original position. Repeat several times. The left arm must be

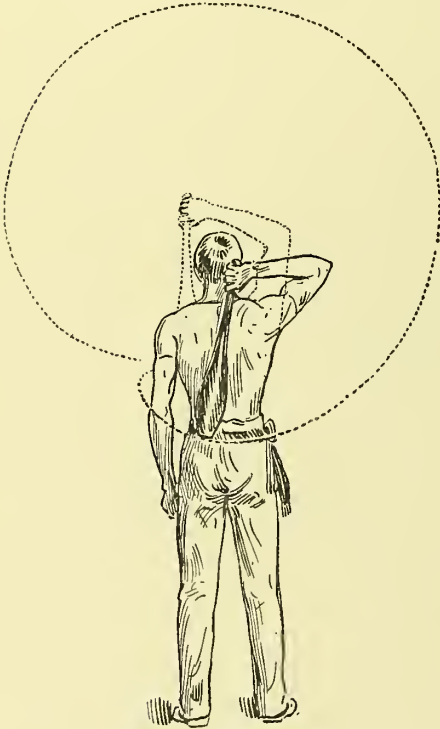


Fig. 592.—Exercise 9.

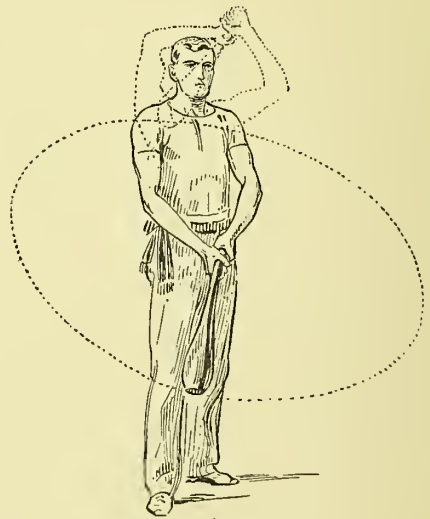


Fig. 593.—Exercise 13.

exercised in the same way. Throughout the action the figure must remain upright.

10. This exercise is similar to one of the movements in exercise 6. Swing the arms round simultaneously, describing an inward circle. As they are brought round to the front, rise on the toe-balls.

11. This exercise is for the benefit of the wrists. Hold the arms close to the figure, and then bend them upwards from the elbows. The wrists must be bent from side to side, the arm from shoulder to elbow remaining quite stiff and close to the figure.

12. This is another wrist exercise. Hold the arms in the same position as for the previous exercise, but with the elbows away from the figure.

Twist the wrists round and round, moving both wrists to the right together and to the left together. Short clubs should be used for this exercise. Those who have only long clubs should exercise each wrist singly.

13. In this movement one club only is used. Grasp the handle at the part nearest to the body of the club with the right hand, palm uppermost, and nearer to its end with the left hand, the wrist bent, the fingers turned in towards the body and ultimately (as the handle lies in the palm) closing over the handle. Place the right leg in advance of the left, and swing the club round in front of the body, over the head, and back to the starting-point. The knees should be stiffened during the upward motion and relaxed as the arms pass round at the back of the head from left to right. It will be understood that, the club being grasped in the manner described, the body of it naturally points to the right; the first "swing", therefore, takes a left-hand direction. Reversing the position of the hands, the body of the club then pointing towards the left, the first "swing" will be directed to the right. The exercise should be practised in both ways.

WAND EXERCISES.

The wand used in gymnastics varies in length and thickness, but is always light in the hand, the object of the wand exercises being to produce grace of movement rather than to develop muscle. As a rule, the wand is about 4 feet or 5 feet in length, merely a straight, rounded piece of wood about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch in diameter.

Some very beautiful exercises can be performed with the wand. As with other gymnastics, the first position to be observed is that of "attention" (which has already been described), the hands as they hang down close to the sides holding the wand, which passes in front of the body.

1. Standing in the "first position" grasp the wand firmly towards the ends with both hands, the knuckles outwards. Raise the arms slowly (inhaling deeply at the same time) until they are vertical. Then lower them slowly (exhaling with the downward movement), and repeat the exercise several times in succession. The elbows should be kept rigid.

2. Raise the arms, as in exercise 1, above the head. Count ten, and then lower them as far as the shoulders, bending the elbows and passing the wand in front of the face. After ten seconds raise the arm again. Repeat the exercise in this way ten or a dozen times, then vary it by omitting the pause between the movements.

3. Hold the wand as before, knuckles outwards, arms straight down at the sides. Raise the arms above the head, then lower them until the hands point in front of the shoulders. Pause a second; shoot the arms to the right until the right arm is fully outstretched; bring them back until the hands are again in front of the shoulders; shoot them out to the left as far as possible, and bring them back to the same position.

4. Proceed at first exactly in the same way as for the previous exercise. After the hands have been struck out to right and left, raise them above the head and bring them down till the wand is level with the chest (elbows bent), then proceed as before, always introducing the upward movement after the wand has pointed to right and left.

5. Raise the arms slowly and deliberately until they extend as far as possible above the head, then lower them over the back until the wand is level with the shoulders. Once more raise the arms and pass the wand to the front, bringing it down again level with the shoulders. Repeat the exercise, always



Fig. 594.—Wand Exercise 2.



Fig. 595.—Wand Exercise 5.

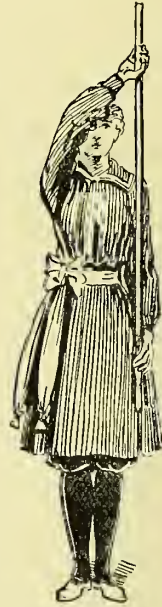


Fig. 596.—Wand Exercise 8.

bearing in mind the proper management of the breath. The elbows should be rigid.

6. Pass the wand over the head, as in the preceding exercise, until it rests on the shoulders. Elbows bent. Then strike out to the right and left in turns, extending to its full the right or left arm as the case may be.

7. The general attitude is that of attention, but the hands are held farther apart towards the ends of the wand. Raise the arms slowly above the head, lower them at the back of the neck as in the previous exercise, and press downwards until the arms are straightened. At first the exercise will be performed with a sort of "jointed" movement during the last stage, the wand taking a diagonal direction and a great deal of jerkiness being noticeable. But practice will remedy these defects. The shoulder-blades must be drawn together, and the arms—to prevent their taking the diagonal course referred to—must be unfolded from the elbow and pressed outwards as the "turn" is accomplished which straightens them. The exercise must be practised very carefully, especially the latter part, which must

on no account be hurried. The wand should be raised again, and passed over the head to its original position.

8. Hold the wand across the chest but slightly in advance of it, the arms bent, the hands wide apart. Press the wand over towards the left, raising the right arm and lowering the left. Continue the movement until the wand is parallel with the left side and close up against it. Repeat the exercise, reversing the direction of the wand, that is to say, pass it to the right, the left hand crossing the body. Keep the waist stiff.

9. Hold out the arms straight in front of the body, grasping the wand firmly. Without changing the position of the arms, bend the body from the waist (the knees remaining stiff) until the wand almost touches the ground. Rise slowly and repeat.

10. One of the most difficult of the wand exercises is that known as "marching". It can only be accomplished after the muscles of the body, and of the arms in particular, have been thoroughly developed. Grasp the wand with both hands, one hand above the other, resting one end upon the ground, then stretch out the body far away from the wand. Walk round the wand, passing one foot over the other. The strain upon the muscles is very great, and beginners should practise the exercise cautiously.



Fig. 597.—Wand Exercise 10.

11. The exercise is similar to exercise 8, except that the body moves with the wand, the waist bending over to right and left as far as possible.

12. Raise the wand above the head, keeping the arms in a vertical position; turn alternately, from the waist, to left and right. The feet must not move.

13. Hold the arms straight out in front of the body, the hands grasping the wand. Move the body from the waist only to right and left, the feet, as in the previous exercise, remaining still.

14. Hold the arms and wand as in the last exercise. Balance the body upon one leg, keeping the other bent backwards; then stoop gently as low as possible and rise again. Exercise both legs in the same way.

15. Hold the arms up above the head, grasping the wand near its ends. Make a slight movement backwards with the arms, then incline them to the left behind the head; bring the right arm over the head and round to the front, the left following. Continue the movement so that the left arm

passes right across the body and round in a circle at the back of the head. The waist should be stiff.

16. This exercise is similar to the previous one, but on a grander scale, and the circle described is very much larger. Hold the arms straight out in front of the body, the hands grasping the wand wide apart. Then describe a circle by moving the arms towards the right, passing them across the back (the left arm over the head), and round the front (the right arm over the head). The body should accompany the movements, and be swayed in a circle from the waist.

MUSIC.

THE PIANOFORTE.

Of all musical instruments the piano is the most common. Indeed, no home seems to be completely furnished without one. It dates back to the middle of the last century, and was preceded by the clavicitherium, the clavichord, the virginal, the spinet, and lastly the harpsichord, in shape like a grand piano. These instruments differed in shape and in details, but the general plan of all was the same. When the piano appeared its superiority won speedy recognition, and it gradually drove its rivals from the field.

Choice of a Pianoforte.—In selecting a piano it is well to avoid one with too hard a touch, as that induces a habit of thumping. A very light touch is also undesirable. Avoid a piano with a hard metallic tone, and also one in which the bass notes have a thick “woolliness” of tone, prolonged after the fingers have left the keys.

Fashion and Pianofortes.—The extensive compass of the modern piano is simply a matter of fashion. In former times the limit was 6 octaves, then $6\frac{1}{4}$, $6\frac{1}{2}$, $6\frac{3}{4}$, and now it has grown to 7 octaves; and on some of the later instruments yet more notes are added, extending the range to $7\frac{1}{4}$ octaves. The extreme notes, high and low, are of very little real use, being almost devoid of tone.

There have been great improvements in the exterior of pianos; in the new instruments the arrangements for music-desks and candlesticks are quite artistic. An ottoman-shaped seat is generally used instead of the old-fashioned music-stool.

Various Kinds of Pianofortes.—The pianette, the smallest form, can be purchased in plain deal case from £15 or £20, this class of instrument being suitable for school-room work. The cottage piano is the next size, and ranges in price from £30 to £100. Then there are the oblique, and the oblique grand, which are rather more expensive. They are similar in appearance to cottage pianos, but differ in the arrangement of the strings. A grand costs from £80 to £300. Large discounts are given.

Rosewood is most generally used for the case; walnut wood is more expensive. The ebony, or imitation ebony, so common a few years ago, is rarely seen now; the unrelieved black cases had a most gloomy appearance. The more expensive instruments, both grand and upright, are magnificently

ornamented with artistic carving, painted panels, and marqueterie, and are real works of art. There is great variety of decorative styles—"Louis XV", with painted panels; "Louis XVI", in mahogany or satin-wood, with ormolu mountings; "French Renaissance", with painted panels; "Italian Renaissance", with richly-carved and painted panels; "Early English", mahogany, and satin-wood. These are but a few examples.

Second-hand Pianofortes.—Intending purchasers should be warned against very cheap instruments; second-hand pianos are not to be recommended. Advertisements frequently appear in the daily papers, offering for sale "pianofortes equal to new". Sometimes they are the property of "a gentleman about to sail for China", or of "a lady about to rejoin her husband in Bombay", or of "an afflicted lady compelled under melancholy circumstances to break up her home". These benevolent individuals, whose respective instruments are stated to have cost originally from £80 to £100, are willing to sacrifice them for about £12. Sometimes they carry their disinterested feelings so far as to name the modest sum of £5. The advertisers, apparently, are detained in this country longer than they expected, as the same announcements are to be seen from time to time. The "genuine bargains" are usually ancient pianos, highly veneered, made to look like new by some process only known to furniture restorers. If any tone at all remains, it cannot be expected to last more than a few weeks, or, at the most, months, the reason of course being that the "action" is completely worn out. It is well known that a regular trade is carried on in this rubbish. The traders manage matters so adroitly that the law cannot touch them, and the business will doubtless go on prospering as long as the passion for bargain-hunting continues in defiance of all common sense.

Management of Pianofortes.—It is important that the piano should be rightly placed—not touching a wall, as that tends to deaden the sound; not too near the fire, lest it should be injured by the heat; and not between the door and window, for it should never stand in a draught. Heavy articles of furniture and thick carpets and curtains are unfavourable to the sound. Pianos are always affected by sudden changes of temperature, and damp weather is their greatest enemy. The proper temperature is about 70°. They should be occasionally left open, as without light and air the keys become yellow and discoloured. The key-board should be thoroughly dusted every day. Regular tuning is essential. Once in three months is usually sufficient, but if from any cause the instrument becomes out of tune, it is better to have an extra tuning than to allow the mischief to go on. The charge for a single tuning varies from 3s. to 7s. 6d. But an annual arrangement is frequently made at reduced terms.

Suggested Method of Practising.—Young beginners should not practise for long at a time. An hour a day will suffice for the average child of twelve; the period may be increased gradually, depending on the age and capacity of the learner and the object in view. Children who after fair trial show no taste for or interest in music should be otherwise

employed. It is worse than useless to practise, or try to do so, when the performer is either mentally or physically fatigued. Practice should always begin with slow finger exercises, the greatest attention being paid to the touch. The keys should be struck firmly, and the fingers should be raised rapidly. The rest of the practice should be divided among scales, studies, pieces, and reading at sight; but general rules are useless, as practice must be regulated by the experience of teacher and learner.

Touch.—Until quite recently the study of touch has been neglected, if not altogether ignored. A naturally good touch is a rare gift, almost as rare as a good voice. But it can be acquired by persevering and intelligent practice—principally by the practice of scales. It is worse than useless to “rush through them” in the usual fashion; they should be played very slowly, every note listened to, Sir Sterndale Bennett advises, with the same attention as would be given to an elaborate piece of music. The position of the hands should be carefully observed; they should be held quite evenly, the wrists being neither raised nor depressed, and only the fingers bent; finally, there should be no movement of the arms.

Exercises for Beginners.—Smallwood’s *Pianoforte Tutor* is a good work to begin with. Macfarren’s *Little Clarina* is also excellent, for it appeals to the intelligence of the pupil, and the first principles of music are explained in a lucid and attractive manner.

Good Studies.—For all practice simply mechanical, Plaidy’s *Technical Studies* are the best, for they leave no difficulty untouched. Czerny’s *101 Exercises*, *Étude de la Vélocité*, *40 Daily Exercises*, so long the mainstay of teachers, are also good, though less comprehensive. Sterndale Bennett’s *Scales*, Cramer’s *Scales and Chords*, and Ellice Jewell’s *Scales in every Form* are all excellent.

More Advanced Studies.—For practice of a higher kind than mere mechanism, Cramer’s *Studies* will be found most useful; many of them are lessons in expression, while others present manual difficulties. Heller’s *Studies* are also valuable, being of varying degrees of difficulty, and charming in some of the later numbers. Amongst the most difficult studies are Hummel’s *Twenty-four* and Dohler’s *Twelve*, all of which well repay any amount of practice. Franklin Taylor’s *Studies* are an excellent selection.

Reading Music.—The power to read music fluently is an innate gift, and cannot be acquired. But constant attention, and above all a knowledge of harmony, will enable a learner to gain a certain degree of proficiency. It is an excellent plan to practise musical dictation—writing down melodies, and afterwards chords, played by the teacher.

Loud and Soft Pedals.—Much misapprehension exists as to the use of the (so-called) loud pedal. Loud pedal is a misnomer. Its effect is merely to sustain the notes, consequently it is often required in *pianissimo* passages. As long as the pedal is kept down every note touched continues to sound, with the occasional result of a “fine confused” noise. Young players usually delight in the pedal, and nervous pianists are apt to have recourse to it when they find themselves in any slight imbroglio, forgetting that

thereby all wrong notes, as well as right ones, are perpetuated. A simple rule is to let the pedal rise when the chord changes; a knowledge of harmony is invaluable. The soft pedal is almost as much misunderstood; the performer should depend solely on touch for *pianissimo*, except when a special effect is intended by the composer, and is indicated by the words *una corda* (one string), in which case the soft pedal should be raised at the words *tre corde* (three strings).

Dance Music.—There is an art even in playing dance music. The first requisite is perfect time. The best rule for expression is to play the measure at first *piano*, and then *forte*. There are endless writers of dance music. Many of Strauss's waltzes are works of real beauty. Waldteufel and Godfrey are excellent composers of this class of music.

The Metronome.—The metronome is a great help to playing in time, and also gives a decided style. It should not be constantly used, and care should be taken to set it to the time indicated by the composer. Bell-metronomes are the best, as the bell sounding indicates the commencement of each bar. They can be bought for a guinea or less.

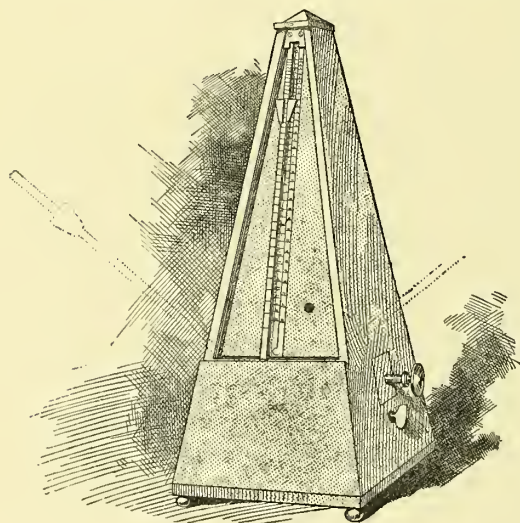


Fig. 598. —Metronome.

Popular Music.—During the past twenty years the popular taste has undergone considerable change. The Operatic Fantasies, the *Morceaux de Salon*, *Mélanges* of popular airs, and sentimental reveries have given place to a more ambitious style. Classical music is attempted to a very great extent, and would doubtless be more successfully essayed if the

performers understood the meaning and ideas of the composer instead of merely playing, however accurately, the notes set down. All learners of average intelligence should be taught the first principles of harmony, the formation of chords, the laws of modulation, and the general structure of works by good writers. For this general musical knowledge no better book can be recommended than Banister's *Music*, one of the Cambridge text-books.

A sonata, in modern language, is a work in separate movements, generally in three or four, developed according to certain laws. (See Hadow's *Primer on Sonata Form*.) When the same form of work is written for more than two instruments, it is named accordingly trio, quartet, quintet, &c. For a solo instrument with orchestra, it is called a concerto. If for more than one principal instrument, with orchestra, it is

sometimes called a concertante. When the sonata form is extended, and the work is written for an orchestra, it is a symphony. Beethoven's "Sonatas" for piano, and for piano and violin, are some of the finest works ever produced. Mozart's and Haydn's "Sonatas" are full of melody, and are easier than Beethoven's both to understand and to execute.

Other forms of instrumental composition are the capriccio, fantasia, *tema con variazioni*, &c. The fugue is the most intellectual, though not the most melodious form of musical composition. A fugue is a work in which a subject given out by one part is answered or imitated successively by other parts, with modifications and embellishments. The word is from *fuga* (a flight), because the parts seem to fly from or spring out of one another. Fugues may be called the mathematics of music. John Sebastian Bach was the great master of this style of writing, and his 48 Preludes and Fugues are indispensable to every student of music, both as practice and as beautiful examples of design.

Amongst the earlier writers for the piano (in some instances for the harpsichord) were Scarlatti, Porpora, Paradisi, Zipoli, Rameau, and, of course, the musical giants, Handel, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven.

Nearer our own time, Clementi, Dussek, Weber, Schubert, Schumann, John Field, Hummel, Mendelssohn have all left treasures for the piano. Mendelssohn, whose works possess a wonderful fascination, though "advanced" critics affect to despise them, was always more highly esteemed in England than in Germany. Not to speak of his oratorios and orchestral works, his pianoforte pieces are charming, and many of them are quite within the power of intelligent learners. The "Lieder ohne Worte" are models of pleasant melodious drawing-room pieces, and have found hosts of imitators.

Sterndale Bennett was one of the finest of English composers. His style somewhat resembles that of Mendelssohn, whom he was accused of plagiarizing; unjustly, as many of his works were actually written before the compositions which he was supposed to have imitated.

Chopin is, perhaps, the idol of the day; it would be better if more of his worshippers understood him. His music is sometimes as obscure as Robert Browning's poetry, and becomes clear only after long study. For the right rendering of his works a sense of expression and a delicate touch are indispensable.

Henselt is also a charming writer; his pieces have the advantage of being short and comprehensible. Tschaikowsky, the great Russian writer, has left many works of real genius, and of the Scandinavians, Grieg and Kjerulf hold a high position.

It is impossible, in this limited space, to give a full list of pianoforte compositions or of composers. A few only can be suggested, but it must be understood that there are hundreds more well worthy of attention.

1. For learners just beyond the instruction book—Beethoven's Sonatinas (2), Clementi's Sonatinas, Schumann's Album, Kohler's Kinder Albums, Kuhlau's Sonatinas.

2. For more advanced players—Chopin's Nocturnes, Mazurkas, and Valses; the works of Chaminade, Gabriel Faure, D  libes, Edward German, Grieg, Eric Helmund, Heller, Henselt, Jadassohn, Jensen, Moszkowski, and Widor.

3. As classical music may be mentioned the works of Bach, Beethoven, Brahms, Dussek, Field, Haydn, Hummel, Mendelssohn, Mozart, Schubert, Sterndale Bennett, Scarlatti, and Schumann.

4. Amongst the most difficult pieces are Chopin's Impromptu,   tudes, Preludes, Ballades, and Polonaises; Liszt's Rhapsodies and Transcriptions;

and the miscellaneous works of Leschetizky, Paderewski, Rubinstein, and Tschaikowsky.

With few exceptions the works in the second and fourth lists are suitable for concerts and musical At-homes. Classical music should be played only when it is likely to be appreciated.

How to Make Small Repairs in a Piano.

There are in a piano several small things apt to get out of order, a few hints concerning which will save the frequent recourse to the music-shop otherwise necessary. Thus the squeak accompanying any movement of one or other of the pedals is easily remedied in the following way:—Re-

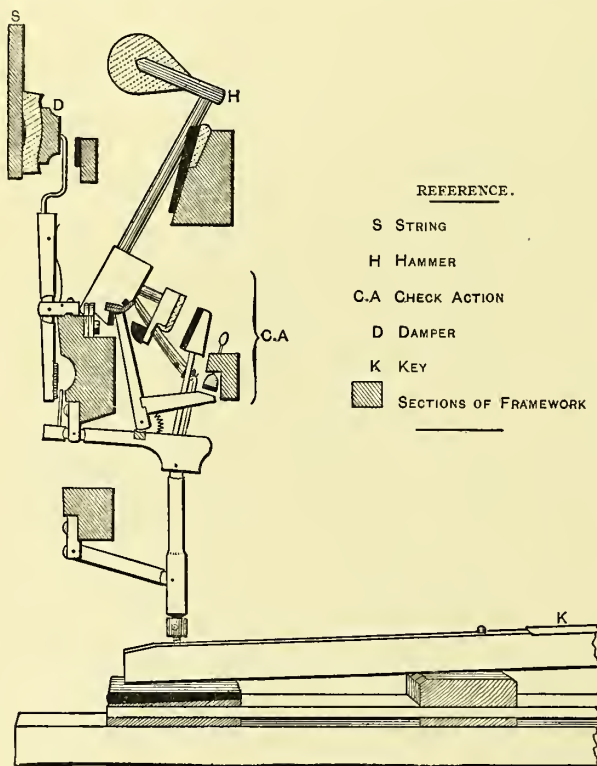


Fig. 599.—"Action" of one Note in an Upright Grand Piano.
(John Broadwood & Sons.)

move the board from the base front of the instrument by pulling it forward, after having first ascertained that there is no catch under the key-board to keep it in place; and then with a piece of ordinary black-lead rub briskly over the various bits of felt connected with the pedals—by pressing on each pedal in turn one will immediately discover which are the pieces so connected. If this does not have the desired effect, then the pins are at fault, and a very small bit of lard must be put on each pin just where it runs through the wood. Indeed the one golden rule to remember when dealing with the piano is to apply black-lead to the felt and lard to the wire part of the instrument, with the exception of course of the strings themselves.

After the piano has received a certain amount of wear and tear, no appreciable effect is obtained by putting down the loud pedal; the notes, too, begin to run into one another and cannot be checked except by the constant use of the soft pedal. The buffing will ultimately need renewing, but a marked improvement can be effected at home. Take away the front of the piano, leaving the top exposed to view, when a narrow strip of wood running the length of the strings and just touching the wires will be noticed. This prevents the strings from vibrating after the fingers are lifted from the keys. The function of the loud pedal is to remove this piece of wood out of the way and permit the notes to be "held on". By degrees the material attached to it loses its softness and becomes hard and flat, so that it no longer fulfils its duty. With a long hat-pin it is not difficult to pick at the stuff and bring it back to something like its first fluffy appearance.

When the pedals get loose, it is a simple matter to screw them up. Remove the base board previously mentioned, and it will be seen that they are kept in place by a big screw, standing point upwards and terminating in a small block of wood which serves as a nut. Turn the block, so that it winds down the thread of the screw, and the pedals will tighten proportionately.

Hammers occasionally break, and if the stem itself is broken, outside assistance must be called in; but if the breakage occurs at the head—a more frequent accident—replace the broken piece in its original position with the help of a tube of "Seccotine". This is kept by any fancy stationer, at the moderate sum of sixpence a tube. Glue may be used for the purpose, but in that case the broken parts must be held firmly together until it has dried; and the majority of tuners prefer "Seccotine".

THE VIOLIN.

The violin has been called the "King of Instruments". It demands distinct musical gifts, and is infinitely more difficult than the piano. The first requisite is absolute perfection of ear; the second, dexterous manipulation, only to be attained by diligent practice, for the technical difficulties are very great. The violin has four strings, tuned in 5ths. The intermediate sounds and those higher than the 1st string are, as in all stringed instruments, obtained by stopping the string with the finger, and so shortening the length of the vibrating portion. When all mechanical difficulties are thoroughly mastered, expression must be studied. The touching, pleading tone of a violin, in the hands of a sympathetic player, is a thing to be felt, not to be described.

There are many styles of teaching, scarcely any two professors having the same method. The study of this instrument should be commenced at a very early age. A child of seven, musically gifted, is not too young

to begin. In later life it is almost impossible to acquire the necessary elasticity of finger, and the ear cannot too early be accustomed to observe the different tones.

It is one of the fashions of the day for girls to learn the violin, a fashion to be commended in cases of decided musical ability. But it frequently happens that much time and temper are wasted, and only an indifferent standard reached after all, to say nothing of the agony inflicted on unwilling listeners, as excruciating sounds are sometimes evolved from the "King of Instruments".

Cheap (and useless) violins can be bought for a few shillings. The finest are to be obtained only at fabulous prices, reckoning by hundreds and even by thousands. But a good average violin can be bought for a few pounds. As regards accessories, bows cost from 4s. 6d. to £2; bow hair, 5s. per dozen; resin, 1s. 4d. to 10s. per dozen. Each one of the four violin strings (E, A, D, G) is sold separately in bundles or dozens, from 4s. 6d. to £2. Cases cost from 5s. to £2. Music-stands from 10s. 6d. upwards.

THE VIOLA.

The viola is larger than the violin; it has four strings, and takes the third part in the string quartet. It is also called the alto (its part being written in the alto clef); the tenor, as it plays the tenor part in the harmony of the quartet; and *viola di braccio*, as it rests on the arm. Very little solo music has been written for this instrument, but there are many duets for piano and viola.

German violas can be bought from £1, and Italian from £12 upwards. Strings cost from 3s. 6d. to 12s. per dozen.

THE VIOLONCELLO.

The violoncello (formerly called the "bass viol") takes the bass part in string trios and quartets. It is a very fine solo instrument, and touchingly expressive in the hands of a sympathetic performer. It is a charming addition to the piano as an *obbligato* accompaniment to songs. Though in many ways resembling the violin, it is less difficult to play. The finest violoncellos can be obtained only at exorbitant prices. But instruments sufficiently good for ordinary use can be bought from £16 to £40.

THE HARP.

The harp is in appearance the most graceful of all instruments, and has been called the "Queen Instrument of the Salon". It is not very much in use, doubtless on account of its costliness. It is also a fragile instrument, and demands constant care and attention, for the strings are affected by every change in the temperature, and a damp atmosphere is a fatal enemy. It must never be exposed to draughts, and when not in use should be kept covered.

Much interesting music has been written for the harp, amongst the most celebrated composers being Parish-Alvars, Oberthur, and John Thomas. The harp is a charming accompaniment to the voice, and very effective in duets with the piano.

Prices vary from £100 to £225. The more expensive instruments are richly ornamented; artistic carving, rare woods, mother-of-pearl, and ivory being employed in their decoration. A single set of strings costs £1, 6s., and a complete assortment £2, 2s., the box for the strings being £2, 2s. Handsome leather covers may be obtained for £5, 5s. These prices apply to the very highest class of harps and accessories. When of inferior quality, they may, of course, be purchased for very much less.

THE GUITAR.

The guitar is quite a drawing-room instrument, and is a pleasant accompaniment to the voice. There are many technical difficulties connected with the instrument; and for brilliant solo playing long-continued study is necessary. But when undertaken merely with a view to playing accompaniments, a course of twenty-four lessons might be sufficient if the student were gifted with a fairly good ear. Duets for guitar and mandoline are frequently played, and are very effective, the tones of the two instruments blending well together. The chief disadvantage of the guitar is, that unless it is kept in a perfectly dry atmosphere the strings are liable to break.

The greatest care is essential in tuning the guitar. The right method is clearly explained (with illustrations) in Madame Sidney Pratten's admirable work *Learning the Guitar simplified*. In this book all difficulties are explained, and full directions are given as to the best way of practising. It contains all the exercises necessary to be learnt, short pieces, and songs. The cost of a guitar varies from 10s. to £7, 7s., the more expensive instruments being richly ornamented. There are French, German, and Spanish varieties. Strings cost from 3s. to 5s. per dozen; leather cases about £1, 5s.; and cloth cases, 10s. A waterproof canvas bag (perhaps the best kind of case) may be obtained for 9s. 6d.

THE MANDOLINE.

The mandoline has lately become a great favourite with musical amateurs. The form is extremely graceful, and the more expensive instruments are elaborately ornamented with tulip-wood and pearl-inlaid tortoise-shell. The mandoline is almost the only instrument struck with the plectrum. Many charming Italian songs have been written specially for it. There are also good solos. Italian national airs are particularly suited to this instrument. It is not difficult to learn.

Genuine Italian mandolines cost from £2 to £14. Those "made in Germany" can be had from 12s. to £1. Plectra cost from 1s. to 4s. per dozen; sleeve guards, 2s. 6d. and 5s. per dozen; strings, 1s. 6d. or 1s. per dozen; and cases about the same as for guitars.

THE HARMONIUM.

Anyone with an average knowledge of music can learn the harmonium without the aid of a teacher. It is fashioned like a small writing-table, with a key-board on its upper service, and two pedals at its base, by means of which the performer supplies wind to the instrument. The full compass is five octaves on the key-board. The sound is produced by the action of thin plates of brass, technically called tongues, which, being suspended by one end over apertures they nearly fill, are thrown into a state of vibration by currents of air directed on them by the feet of the performer. There are many varieties of this instrument. The "percussion harmonium" is preferable for secular music, as it is constructed so that rapid passages can be performed with the right effect. The harmonium without percussion is suitable only for sacred music.

The lowest priced harmonium has only one stop and a compass of four octaves. The more expensive are constructed with seven, eleven, fifteen, and seventeen stops. The larger ones are fitted only for large halls and churches.

One advantage of this instrument is its comparative cheapness, prices ranging from 6 to 25 guineas. There is much excellent music arranged for the harmonium — chants, psalm and hymn tunes, anthems and voluntaries. Harmonium and piano duets are exceedingly effective. The principal writers for the instrument are Rimbault, Engel, and Lemmens. Some excellent pieces were written by Kinross.

AMERICAN ORGAN.

Small American organs are in many respects similar to harmoniums, look equally well in a drawing-room, and are suited to the same style

of music. The larger instruments are fit only for churches and public rooms. Prices vary from 6 to 20 guineas.

THE FLUTE.

The flute is not so fashionable as it was, being now rarely heard except in orchestras. Brilliant effects can be produced by an expert performer. It is sometimes used as an *obbligato* accompaniment (with piano) to songs. There are many duets for flute and piano. The instrument chiefly used now is termed the German flute; it is made of boxwood and silver. There is a smaller flute called the piccolo, which plays an octave higher than the notes written. It is very shrill, and is used only as an extra instrument for special effects.

Cheap flutes can be bought from 3s. to 18s., and a better quality from £3 to £20.

CLARINETS.

The clarinet is one of the most important instruments in the orchestra, but is rarely used in the home. There are many varieties with different arrangements of keys. Those of English manufacture cost from £1, 10s. to £3, 10s., and of French from £1, 18s. to £23, according to the different kinds of metal and wood employed.

BRASS INSTRUMENTS.

Brass instruments are, as a rule, too powerful in tone for an ordinary room; but the French-horn, sax-horn, and cornet are sometimes played with piano accompaniment, and with violin or harp for dance music. The prices of horns and cornets vary from £1, 10s. to £18.

THE BANJO.

The banjo, though not an instrument of the highest order, claims a few words, as it is greatly in request for an accompaniment to comic songs. It is easily learnt by anyone with some knowledge of music, only a few lessons being required. There are many varieties, with five, six, or seven strings, with veneered or walnut handles, and with brass or nickel-plated fittings. Prices vary from 4s. to 15s. A more expensive kind, made of superior wood with German silver frets, costs from £1 to £4.

THE ZITHER.

The zither is a small, portable instrument. It is easily learnt, and can be made rather effective. A short zither can be bought for 18s., but the better instruments range in price from £2 to £10.

CONCERTED MUSIC.

During the past few years, now that musical education is so universally extended, many amateurs have taken up the study of stringed instruments, and quartet playing has become very general in private circles. It is one of the most intellectual forms of enjoyment when a certain amount of proficiency is attained, and when the four performers are of equal ability. The first violin naturally takes the lead, and to some extent controls the movements of the other players. Each performer should be thoroughly acquainted with all the parts of the quartet, and much *ensemble* practice is indispensable for the right interpretation of the great masterpieces. These remarks apply equally to trios, quintets, and other combinations. In some of these compositions the pianoforte is introduced, and sometimes wind-instruments. But, the flute and clarinet excepted, wind-instruments are too powerful for a room of ordinary size.

SINGING.

Much is said in these days about voice production; there are many new systems employed with varying success. Some experts contend that there is nothing to compare with the old Italian school of vocalization. Others are equally certain that the right method of producing the voice is a discovery of to-day.

Generally speaking, vocal music finds more favour than instrumental playing, and naturally appeals more directly to the popular taste. Given a good voice and tolerable ear, it is not difficult to attain a certain proficiency with a comparatively small amount of practice. Simple ballads, sung with expression, frequently give greater pleasure than ambitious vocal displays, which sometimes verge on the ludicrous. Clear enunciation and intelligent expression cannot be too strongly insisted on. It happens sometimes that the vocalist sings the music correctly, but articulates the words so indistinctly that the audience is merely bored. Italian is, of all languages, the best adapted to the voice, but to sing an Italian song at, say, a village concert, would be absurd.

It should not be forgotten that a singer is very much at the mercy



[Courtesy of the
Orchestrelle Co., London]

THE PIANOLA

of the accompanist, who sometimes is apt to give the pianoforte part undue prominence, to the detriment of the song. The accompanist should wholly subordinate his playing to the singer, careful to follow changes of time and expression, and to assist the singer, especially if he be inexpert, at any sign of breaking down. The egotistic accompanist who delights in showing up the singer's wrong notes is a pest.

The methods of teaching singing are so various, that it is hardly worth while to name any special forms, especially as each professor has his or her own favourite studies. It may be said, however, that Conconi's "Studies" are excellent and inexpensive, the price being 1s. The methods of Garcia and Madame Mathilde Marchesi have a world-wide reputation.

THE PIANOLA.

Of recent years, various inventions for the mechanical reproduction of music have been brought to a high pitch of perfection. The most remarkable of these is the mechanism known as the Pianola, which has won commendation from such masters of the pianoforte as Paderewski, and bids fair to prove one of the most popular products of the twentieth century. It consists of a piece of apparatus in general shape not unlike a harmonium, which contains a series of hammers so arranged as to lie exactly over the keys of an ordinary pianoforte. A perforated roll of paper, the perforations in which correspond to the notes of the piece of music to be played, is placed on the instrument in view of the performer, who, by working two treadles like the treadles of a harmonium or a sewing-machine, causes the paper to revolve over a series of air-holes. As the paper revolves, the air rushing through the holes causes the hammers to strike the keys of the pianoforte, and so nicely are the calculations made that the notes of the most intricate piece of music are played on the actual key-board with the utmost clearness and precision. But this would secure only mechanical correctness, monotonous and inexpressive, were it not for two wonderful contrivances, by means of which, in conjunction with variation of pressure on the treadles, astonishing effects of expression are achieved. Two levers are at the control of the performer, one for affecting the volume of tone and the so-called "loud" pedal, the other for regulating the tempo. By these means an expert performer can produce almost the nicest gradations of tone, sforzandos, rallentandos, accelerandos, and so on, the performance becoming, in effect, a close imitation of the playing of an expert pianist, with a technical accuracy which even the most expert might envy. The instrument, of course, has its limitations, but the amount of pleasure, to say nothing of instruction, to be obtained from it, is almost illimitable.

RECREATIONS.

INDOOR GAMES.

GAMES REQUIRING MOVEMENT.

Badminton.—Badminton is an excellent indoor game for six or eight players, much in favour in Indian military stations during the rainy season. The room in which it is played should be 50 feet by 30 to allow of a margin all round the court. A full-sized court measures 42 feet by 20, and is divided in half lengthways, and across by four lines, two on either side of the net at a distance from it of 4 feet and 10 feet respectively.

The net should stretch along the entire width of the court, its top line being 5 feet 10 inches from the floor. It is usually 2 feet 6 inches in depth, and costs about 15s., including the poles to which it is attached at either end. The rackets should be preferably of Indian shape and make, strung with English gut, and very light and well-balanced, weighing about 5 oz. only. The average price of such a racket is 8s. 6d. Good shuttlecocks may be bought at about 4s. 9d. per dozen, and should be about 3½ inches long, including both base and feathers.

The game is scored by single points up to 21. If both sides are equal when 20 ("game-ball") is called, the players may by mutual arrangement "set" three or five, *i.e.* agree that the game must be won by a margin of three or five points instead of one. Only the service side can score points.

The action of the play is nearly all from the wrist, especially in the front courts, and rarely from the shoulder. The shuttlecocks should just clear the net, and should not be "skied", for when that is done they are more easily beaten down by the adversary. The players stand one in each court; or two in the front courts, and one between the back courts. The latter is the best game.

The right-hand player in a front court begins the game by serving a shuttlecock diagonally into the opposite front right-hand court, over and not within the service line. The service must be given from each front court in turn, the two front players changing places after each stroke or rally. If in the service the shuttlecock falls short of the service line, or outside the limits of the court for which it was intended, the player loses his service, which is then taken up by his partner in the other front court. When the players in the two front courts have been "put out" by the hazard side, they change places with their partners in the back courts, who serve until they also are

put out, and the hazard side wins the service. If there are only three players on either side, the front players take it in turn to play back. The service should only be returned by the player for whom it was intended. A rally ends when the shuttlecock is not returned, or is so played as to fall outside the courts; if from the hazard side, the serving side scores a point; if from the serving side, the service passes on in the order just described. During a rally the shuttlecock may be returned by any player who can most conveniently do so.

If a shuttlecock is "tipped", *i.e.* touched in its progress by the person of any of the players, the stroke counts against the side by whom it was fouled, unless the shuttlecock is returned without demur by the adversary.

If a player in beating down a shuttlecock places his racket over on the adversary's side of the net, the stroke counts against him.

Bagatelle. — Bagatelle is played on a table or board by any number of players, their object being to hole the balls in the nine cups let in at the end of the board.

Tables vary in price, according to size and quality, from £10 to £15, inclusive of two cues, a mace, a bridge, and nine balls, and are generally from 8 to 10 feet in length, and from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet in width. Folding boards with fittings cost, according to size, from three to eight guineas, and vary from 6 feet by $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot to 9 feet by 2 feet, or even larger. The cue is used more frequently than the mace, and rests on the left hand (which is posed in the form of a bridge), between the first finger and thumb.

For the lead each player in turn strikes a ball up the board and endeavours to hole it. The player who makes the highest score wins. The black ball is then placed on the white spot at the top of the board, and the other balls are struck by the player in succession from the white

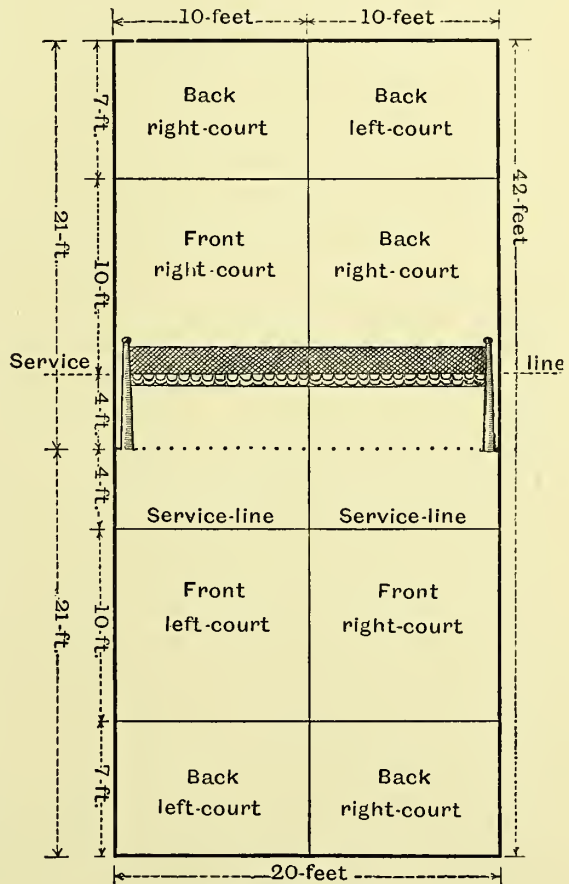


Fig. 600.—Badminton Court.

spot at the lower end of the board. The player must first aim at the black ball. Until he strikes it he cannot score, and his balls, whether holed or not, are removed from the board, and cannot be used by him again during that round. Once having hit the black ball, the player may hole the balls either off the cushions on either side, off another ball, or directly into the cup. All balls failing to cross the centre line (formed by the folding of the board), or running back across it, or struck off the table, are dead balls. When the player has finished his round, he adds together the numbers of the holes into which his balls have fallen, and indicates his score with a peg in the marker on one side or other of the board. Holing the black ball counts double. It must always, if it has been moved from the spot, be replaced after the round.

For the *Cannon* game only three balls are required, coloured respectively white, red, and black. At the beginning of the game the black ball is placed on the white spot in front of hole 1, and the opponent's ball midway between holes 5 and 9. The player must always stand at the end of the board, and not on either side of it. He may place his ball anywhere within baulk, *i.e.* the portion of the board inside a line drawn through the white spot on which the striker's ball is placed. To make a cannon, the player must first hit the black ball and then his opponent's. After each cannon, for which he scores two points, the player replaces his ball in baulk in whatever position he likes. The score may be increased by holing the balls in addition to making a cannon. The black ball counts double, and the highest score possible at one stroke is 35. The cannon game is frequently played on a table 12 feet in length, without holes.

Sans égal is a game for two persons, one player taking the four red balls, the other the four white. The black ball is placed on the white spot at the top of the board. The player who leads strikes one ball up the board to hit the black ball and hole one ball, or both if possible. His opponent plays next with similar intent, and so on alternately, each scoring the points made by his own ball, and the black ball counting double to the player who holes it. If a player holes an adversary's ball, the points made are added to his opponent's score. The player who makes the greatest number of points in each round takes the lead in the next.

Mississippi is played with the bridge sold with every bagatelle board, which is placed close up to the half-circle at the end. Each player attempts to strike the nine balls successively against the cushion on one side or the other, and thence through the bridge into the holes, and if he fails to do so, the stroke is scored to his adversary. The game is sometimes varied by placing the black ball on the white spot, in which case it must be hit by the player before he can score.

In a simplified form of mississippi called *trou-madame* the balls need not first strike the cushion, but may be played straight through the bridge into the holes.

Billiards.—The game of billiards has been played in England since the 16th century, and was imported from France or Italy. It is played on a

table usually 12 feet by 6 feet 2 inches, the lowest price of which averages £50 inclusive of balls, cues, half-butt, rests, and marking-board. Smaller and what are called "miniature" tables, varying in length from 5 feet to 10 feet, are obtainable at cheaper rates—from £4, 10s. to £37. When it is not possible to set apart a room entirely for the game, the combined automatic dining and billiard table is an excellent institution, costing from £23 to £31, and measuring 6 feet by 3 feet or 8 feet by 4 feet.

The balls, three in number, are $2\frac{1}{8}$ inches in diameter, and coloured respectively red, white ("plain ball"), and white with a spot ("spot ball"). Cues vary in length from 4 feet 6 inches to 5 feet. On a full-sized table it is sometimes necessary to place the cue on a rest ("jigger"), which should be within 10 or 12 inches of the striker's ball, and both cue and rest should be held as nearly horizontal with the top of the table as possible. A very long cue (the "half-butt") is also provided, and a butt rest, which may be placed nearer to the ball than the ordinary rest.

At the beginning of the game the red ball is placed on the "spot", which is about $12\frac{3}{4}$ inches from the top cushion, and the striker's ball in the semicircle ("the D") at the lower end of the table, within the "baulk line". There are also the right- and left-hand spots in baulk at either end of the "D", the centre spot between the two middle pockets, and the pyramid spot midway between the centre spot and the top cushion. To leave one's own and the red ball in baulk when one's opponent's ball is in hand is to make a "double baulk", and oblige him either to play his next stroke up the table or to give a "miss".

At the commencement of play both white balls are off the table ("in hand") and the players "string for the lead", that is they place their balls on the left- and right-hand spots in baulk respectively, and play so as to

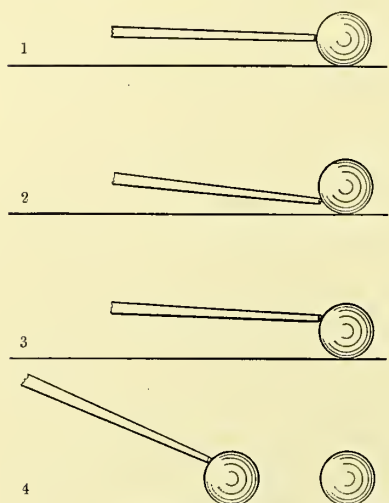


Fig. 601.—Billiards—"The Bridge".

hit the top cushion and rebound into baulk; whichever gets his ball nearest to the bottom cushion wins the lead and chooses his ball. He then "breaks the balls", *i.e.* places his own and the red ball on their respective spots, and plays to hit the red ball, or if he prefer not to hit it, "gives a miss", or requests his adversary to begin the game.

In playing, "strike fairly from the shoulder, and not merely from the elbow", with the arm close to the body. The cue should be almost horizon-

tal with the table, and should be supported on the "bridge" formed by resting the upper portion of the wrist and the finger tips on the table, drawing up the knuckles to form a hollow under the palm, and raising high the thumb, between which and the adjoining knuckle the cue rests (see fig. 601). The distance between the bridge and the ball should be about 6 inches.



[From Bohn's *Handbook of Games*.
Fig. 602.

1. The Central Stroke. 2. Cue for the Twist or Pull Back. 3. Cue for Following Ball. 4. A Twist or Pull Back when one ball is near another.

After deciding at what point the striker's ball should be hit, the eye should rest on the object ball. If the striker's ball is hit full in the centre, this is called the "full centre stroke" or "straight hazard"; if above the centre, a "high"; and if below, a "low stroke". A "side stroke" is made by striking the ball on that side of the centre (and horizontally with it) on which the player intends it to proceed after contact with another ball. When the ball is struck high, with a pushing motion, it follows after the ball ("object ball") upon which it impinges; this is called a "run through" or "following stroke". The higher a ball is struck the more swiftly it travels. A "pull back" is accomplished by striking the ball low and giving a sudden backward jerk. This causes the player's ball to rebound from the other instead of running after it. If the player's ball stops dead on the spot previously occupied by the object ball, this is termed a "stab shot".

If at impact half of the object ball, as viewed from the striker's position, is covered by the striker's ball, the two balls will move at about the same rate of speed, but at different angles. This is shown in the accompanying diagram, as also the angles followed by the "three-quarter" the "quarter", and the "fine ball".

Particular attention should also be paid to the different angles of the table, *i.e.* the change in the course of a ball after striking a top or side cushion. It is a well-known axiom in billiards that "the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection"; for instance, if a ball is struck from the right-hand spot in baulk to the centre point of the top cushion, it will rebound over the left-hand spot in baulk. The angles, however, will not be equal if the ball is hit at any other point than its exact centre, and also if much or little force is used in the stroke. If the ball is struck very softly the angle of reflection will be more, and if hard, less than that of incidence. It is advisable for a beginner to make a chalk mark on the top or side cushion, and practise striking his balls at it, first from one side and then from the other side of the angle. This he may follow up by introducing the red and white balls in the line of the angles, and striking first one and

then the other (a "cannon") off the cushion. He should next turn his attention to "winning hazards" (when the striker with his own ball pockets another ball) by practising with the two balls in a line near to each other and in the direction of a pocket, and then gradually placed farther apart. Lastly, the "losing hazards" (when the striker pockets his own ball after having with it struck another ball) should be practised.

In a "cramp game" one player gives his opponent some advantage, such as five pockets to one. The handicapped player has the choice of the

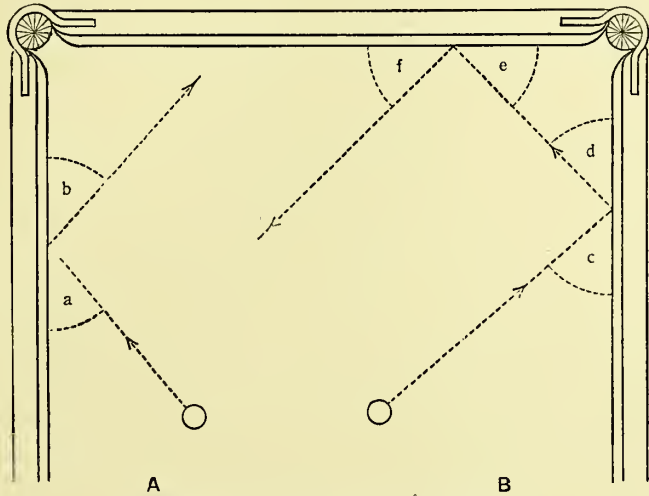


Fig. 603.—Angles of Incidence and Reflection.

pocket, and usually takes one of the top corner ones. Should he play into any other pocket the score counts to his opponent. If the latter plays into his adversary's pocket, the score in the same way counts against him.

The customary score is 50 points—in a cramp game it is only 21—made by the following strokes or combinations of them:—For a cannon, 2; for a white winning hazard (when the striker plays at the white ball and pockets it), 2; for a white losing hazard (when the striker pockets his own ball after having first hit the white ball), 2; for a red winning hazard, 3; for a red losing hazard, 3. If the striker's ball is pocketed after touching both balls it is reckoned as pocketed off the ball first struck. The adversary scores 1 point for a miss when the player fails to strike any ball, or when the player's ball is forced off the table without first striking another ball. When a player "runs a coup" (pockets his own ball without first striking another ball), or, in the act of drawing back his cue after a stroke, knocks a ball into a pocket, his adversary scores 3 points.

If a player when in hand moves his ball with insufficient strength to take it out of baulk, his adversary may either have the ball replaced or claim a miss.

If a striker whose ball is in hand strikes any ball in baulk without having first played up the table, his adversary may either have the balls

replaced, claim a miss, or claim a foul stroke. If a foul stroke is made while giving a miss, the adversary may treat the stroke as either a foul or a miss. After a foul stroke, the player must allow his opponent to follow

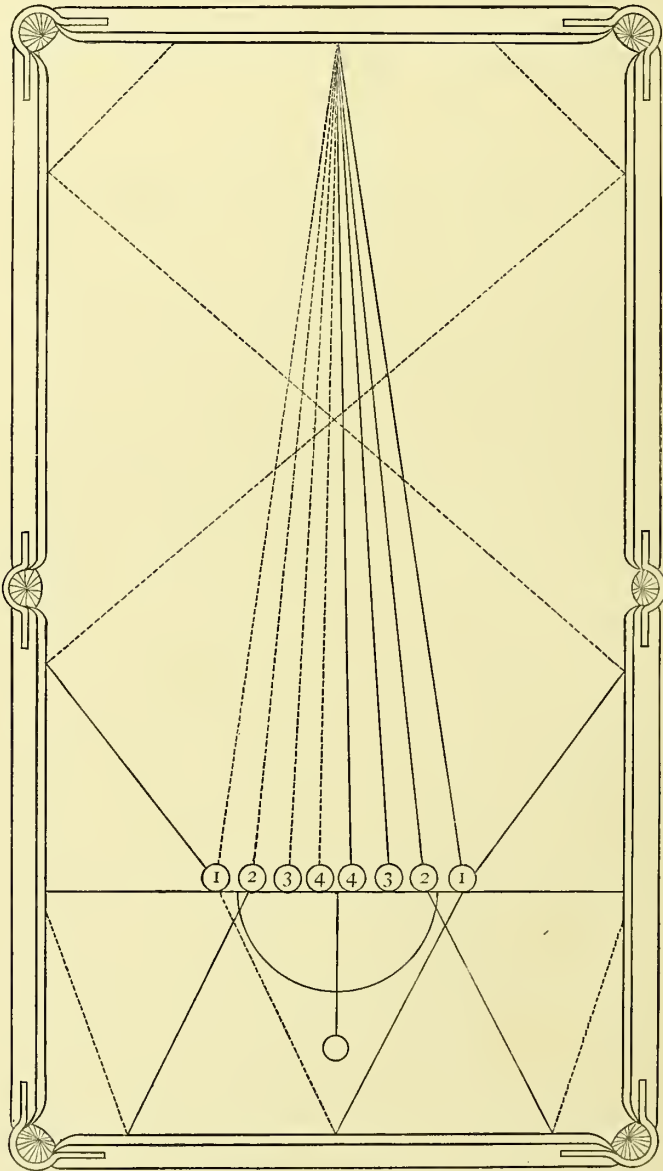


Fig. 604.—Angles of Incidence and Reflection.

[After Hoyle.]

on. When a score has been made, the latter must break the balls, and the former also strike from the D. It is entirely at the option of the adversary whether he will enforce the penalty.

If in a following stroke the striker pushes the ball more than once,

any score made by the stroke does not count, and his opponent breaks the balls.

If in moving the cue prior to a stroke a ball is touched and moved, it must be replaced to the opponent's satisfaction, or he may claim a foul stroke.

If in taking aim a player moves his ball, causing it to strike another ball, a foul stroke may be claimed.

If the striker touches any ball with his cue, person, or hand, so that he obstructs or impedes its progress, the balls must be replaced or broken at the adversary's option.

If, when playing, the striker lifts both feet off the floor, it is a foul stroke.

If a player uses his opponent's ball and makes a score, the balls must be broken, and the score is not reckoned. If no score is made, his opponent may choose which ball he will play with, and continue to use it until the game is finished. If the mistake is not discovered before the next stroke there is no penalty. The adversary alone has the right to inform a player that he has used the wrong ball, and if he fails to inform him, the marker is bound to add any points made to the striker's score.

A player breaking the balls must play out of baulk, though it is not necessary to hit the red ball.

Any balls within baulk or "line balls" (on the baulk line) may not be played at if a striker is in hand. He may use the butt of his cue to play up the table.

The red ball at the beginning of every game is placed on the spot and replaced after being pocketed, or forced off the table, or whenever the balls are to be broken. If the spot is occupied by another ball, the red ball must be placed on the pyramid spot, and if that also is occupied, on the centre spot.

If a ball is taken up by either player, unless by the opponent's consent, the latter may have it replaced or have the balls broken; if by any other person, it must be replaced by the marker.

If a player strikes the ball with his cue more than once, he must either play the stroke again or place the ball on the spot which it would have reached if only touched once.

If any ball is forced off the table, or lodges in the cushion, the player gains nothing by the stroke.

If a ball ceases spinning, remains stationary at the brink of a pocket, and then falls in, it must be replaced, and the score made does not count.

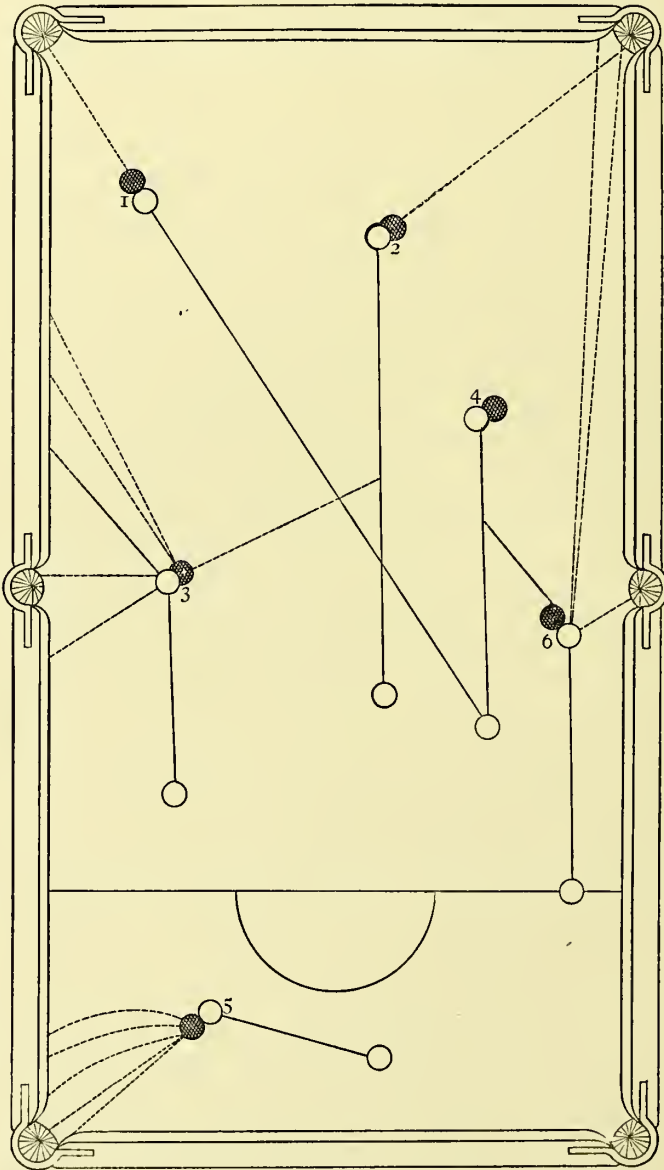
All disputes must be settled by the marker.

In the game known as *Pool*, each player has a ball coloured differently from those of his neighbours. The competitors play in succession, each aiming at the previous striker's ball, and endeavouring to pocket his opponents' balls, at the same time placing his own in such a position that it cannot be pocketed by the next player. He who succeeds in doing this wins the contents of the pool, to which each player contributes a fixed number of counters at the beginning of the game.

Each player has three lives which may be lost. If a striker takes a life,

he continues to play until he can no longer score, or till all the balls are off the table, when he places his ball on the spot as at the beginning of the game.

If the player pockets a ball by a foul stroke, the owner of the ball does



[After Hoyle.]

Fig. 605.—Division of the Object Ball. Striker's Ball white; Object Ball shaded.

1. Full ball. 2. Half ball. 3. Three-quarter ball. 4. Quarter ball. 5. Fine ball. 6. Very fine ball.

not lose a life. If a life is lost in any way, the next player aims at the ball nearest to his own; but if his ball is in hand, he plays at the ball nearest to the centre of the baulk line.

If the two balls nearest the striker's ball are equidistant from it, their owners should draw lots to decide which is to be played at. If the striker's ball is touching his object ball, he may play at any other ball instead. If

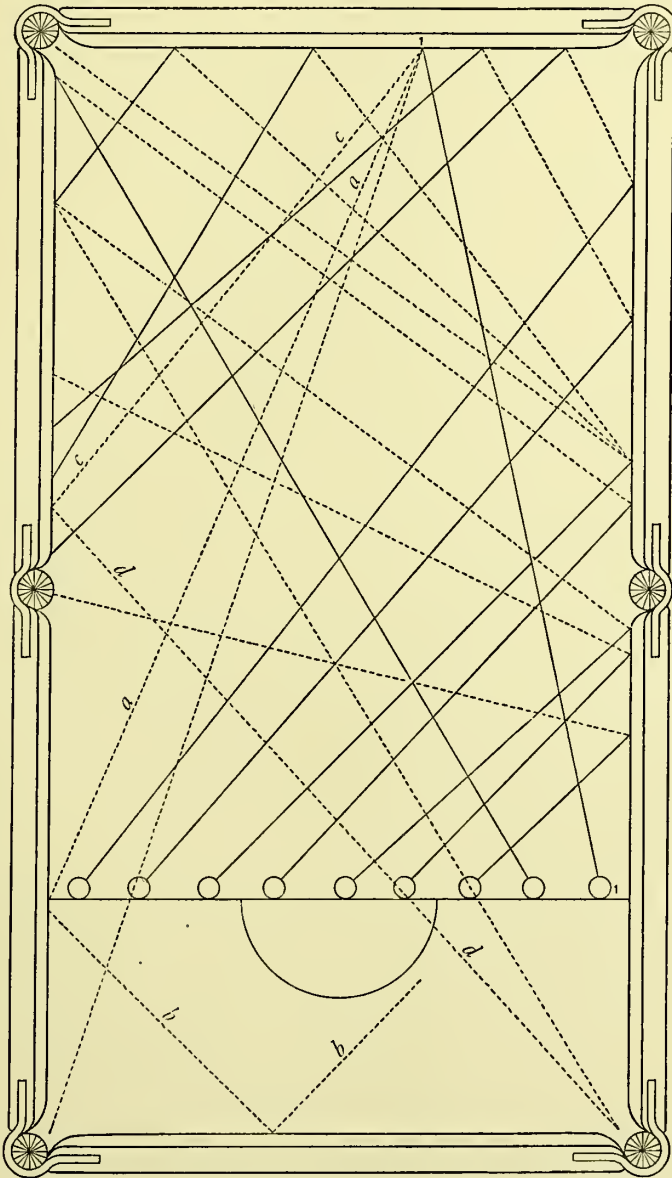


Fig. 606.—Angles of the Table.

[After Hoyle.]

1. Ball played with moderate strength. *a, b.* Harder stroke. *c, d.* Harder stroke, the ball struck above the centre.

any ball is in the way of the striker, or his cue, it may be removed during the stroke, but must be replaced immediately, unless his own ball has meanwhile occupied that position, when it must remain in hand.

Whoever first loses three lives may "star", *i.e.* purchase lives equal in number to the lowest number of lives on the marking-board, by a payment to the pool equivalent to that staked at the beginning of the game. Only one star is allowed in a pool, and the last two players cannot star.

The last owner of a life is the winner. When two players are left in who are ties, they either play the game out or share the pool, unless the original number of players did not exceed three. The last striker is entitled to his last stroke before the division.

In *Pyramids*, fifteen red balls are placed on the board in the form of a triangle, the apex of which is the "pyramid spot" midway between the centre of the table and the top cushion. The players use the white ball alternately and endeavour to pocket the red balls, each playing until he fails to score. If either player gives a miss, pockets the white ball, or forces it over the table, or plays a foul stroke, he has to replace one of the red balls on the pyramid spot; if that is occupied, on the billiard spot, and failing that also, immediately behind the pyramid spot. A point is at the same time taken from the player's score, or if he has failed to score, is owed by him. When all the red balls except one are pocketed, the player who has made the last winning hazard continues to use the white ball, and his adversary uses the red. When only two balls are left, if the striker pockets the ball he plays with, or makes a miss, the game is finished, and one point added to the opponent's score.

Parlour Quoits.—Quoits is played with a board, on which there are five numbered pegs, and five rope-rings, which the player endeavours to throw over the pegs from a distance of from 10 to 12 feet from the board. The numbers of the pegs successfully ringed are added together at the end of each player's round; any number of points agreed upon may constitute game. The cost of the requisites averages 7s. 6d.

Buckets is a very simple form of quoits. The rope-rings are aimed to fall into an ordinary wooden bucket. The player scores 1 point for a ring lodging inside, and 3 points for one on either handle.

Bull is played with a board varying in size from 2 feet 3 inches by 1 foot 10 inches to 4 feet 6 inches by 3 feet 9 inches, and costing from 7s. 6d. to 25s. It is marked out in squares, each having a number. The player scores all the numbers which he successfully covers with the rope-rings.

In the game of *Sling-ring* a round board furnished with thirteen numbered hooks is fastened to the wall, and the player is supplied with six india-rubber quoits to cast at the hooks. The price of board and quoits averages 6s.

Ping-Pong.—This game, after languishing in obscurity for some years, entered upon a new lease of life at the beginning of the present century. It is practically the same as ordinary tennis, but is played on a table with parchment racquets and small celluloid balls. The table should not be shorter than six feet, and should be about four feet wide. The net, which is six inches high, is stretched across the middle. As the two courts thus formed are not subdivided as in lawn-tennis, the server may place the ball

at any point in his opponent's territory. If, however, he strike it beyond the table or fail to get it over the net, no second service is allowed, and his adversary counts one point. The service must be delivered from beyond the end of the table, the stroke being underhand. Volleying is not allowed, but a ball may be returned at half-volley. Otherwise the rules, including the method of scoring, are the same as in lawn-tennis. Ping-Pong is a game for two players, but special tables are made with full courts marked for four. Complete sets of the requisites for playing the game may be had from the sole proprietors, Hamley Brothers, 86 and 87 High Holborn, London, at prices varying from 2s. 6d. to 12s. 6d.

Skittles.—Skittles may be played in a passage or corridor with nine pins and three balls; the cost of a good set is about 12s. 6d. A diamond-shaped frame costs £3, 15s. If this is not provided, the skittles are set up in five rows, as shown in the diagram, and the player stations himself at about 30 feet from them. His object is to knock down as many skittles as he can at each turn. Each pin knocked down by the ball itself or by another pin counts one point. Any pin knocked down by the rebound from the wall, either of the ball or of a pin, does not count and must be set up again. The players form into two sides, each of which plays alternately until one of them reaches the number of points agreed upon for the game. Another system of scoring allows only 3 throws to clear the board, and if 1 pin or more is left, no score is counted. Clearing the board in 1 throw counts 3 points, in 2 throws 2 points, and in 3 throws 1 point.

Skittle boards averaging 7 feet 6 inches by 2 feet 9 inches cost about five guineas. In playing with these boards the ball is propelled by a cue, as at billiards.

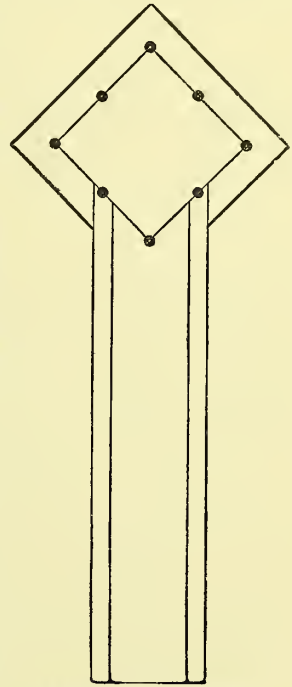


Fig. 607.—Skittles arranged for the Game.

GAMES OF SKILL.

Backgammon.—Backgammon is a game for two persons played upon a double board with hinges, divided by the "bar" into two parts, called the "outer" and "inner" tables. Each table contains 12 "points" coloured black and white alternately. The players are provided with 2 dice and a box and 15 draughtsmen each, one set white and one black. The lead is determined by the highest throw of a die. The object of the game is to move one's men from the adversary's inner table through his outer table into one's own outer table and inner table "home". The moves are determined

by the throws of the dice, each player throwing alternately. In each throw the numbers may be taken separately or together, *i.e.* if 6 and 4 are thrown, one piece may be advanced 10 points; or two moved up, one 4 points and the other 6. The throw of a pair, for instance two sixes or two fours, counts double for each die. A single piece on a point is called "a blot", and may be captured by the opponent if he can "hit the blot" by moving one of his own men to that point. The blot is then placed on the bar or division of the table, and the player who owns it cannot move until he makes a throw which enables him to enter his man again in his adversary's inner table. The piece can only be replaced on a point unoccupied by two or more hostile men.

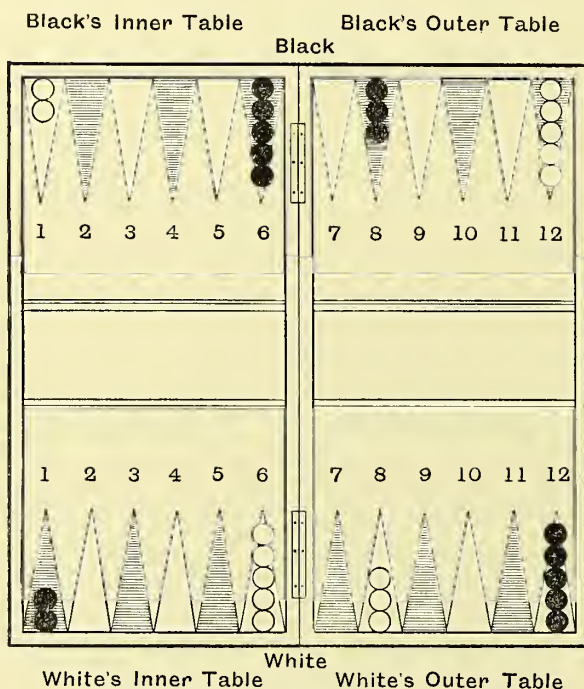


Fig. 608.—Backgammon Board, with the Draughtsmen arranged for the Game.

a man from the point equivalent in number to the throw. The first player who clears his inner table wins the game. If the adversary has "borne" any of his men, the winner counts a "hit" (a single); if not, a "gammon" (double). He scores "backgammon" when his adversary has failed to bear any of his men, and has been unable to remove all his pieces from the winner's inner table. A game is usually played three up—that is three hits, a gammon and a hit, or a backgammon. The best two games out of three wins the "rub".

Chess.—Chess, a game of great antiquity, and the most intellectual of games of skill, is played by two persons on a draught-board so placed that each player has a white square at the right-hand corner. The object of the game, in which each player moves alternately, is to "checkmate" one's adversary's king, as will presently be explained. Sixteen pieces are used by each player (one set coloured black and one white) of six kinds, each kind moving in a manner peculiar to itself. They are:

(1) The eight pawns (P.), the pieces of least value, called respectively king's pawn (K.P.), queen's pawn (Q.P.), king's bishop's pawn (K.B.P.),

king's knight's pawn (K.Kt.P.), king's rook's pawn (K.R.P.), queen's bishop's pawn (Q.B.P), queen's knight's pawn (Q.Kt.P.), queen's rook's pawn (Q.R.P.). At his first move each pawn may advance either one or two squares at the player's option, afterwards only one at a time. When a pawn reaches the opposite end of the board he is exchanged for any superior piece (except the king), and most usually for the queen. When capturing another pawn or superior piece, the pawn's move is one square forward diagonally; or he may capture another pawn *en passant*, which in the first move of two squares has occupied the square immediately to the left or right of that which he himself occupies, taking possession of the square which that pawn would have occupied if it had moved one square only instead of two. Alone of all the pieces a pawn must always move forward and not backwards or at right angles.

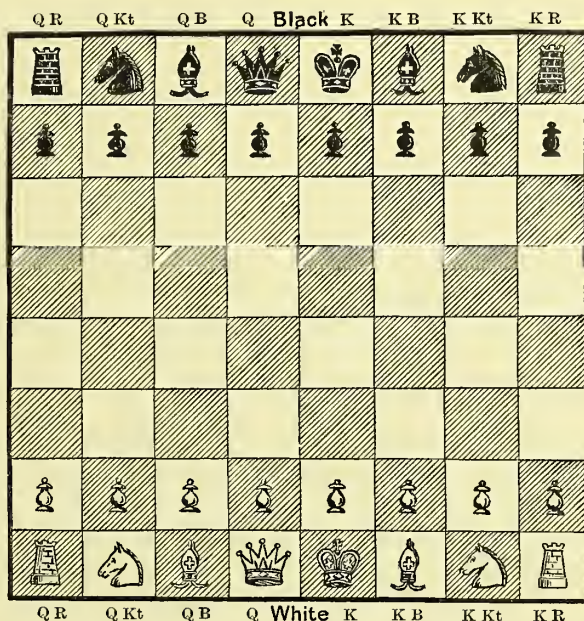


Fig. 609.—Chess-board, with Pieces arranged for play.

(2) The two knights (Kt.), called the king's knight (K.Kt.) and the queen's knight (Q.Kt.). A knight's move is two squares in a straight line, but not diagonally, and then one at right angles, so that he invariably rests on a square differently coloured from that from which he starts. He alone of all the pieces may leap over any man in making his move.

(3) The two bishops (B), called the king's bishop (K. B.) and the queen's bishop (Q. B.). They move diagonally any number of squares, and therefore always rest on a square of similar colour to the one started from.

(4) The two rooks (R), called the king's rook (K. R.) and queen's rook (Q. R.). A rook may move any number of squares at a time in a straight line, but not diagonally.

(5) The queen (Q). This is a very powerful piece, able to move any number of squares at a time in a straight line, and without the restrictions as to direction limiting the moves of the rooks and bishops.

(6) The king (K). This piece cannot be taken, but may not move into "check", *i.e.* into a position where if he were another piece he could at once be taken by a hostile piece. No other piece belonging to the same side may be so moved as to leave the king in check, and if put in check by

the move of a hostile piece he must at once, if possible, move or be put out of it by another piece; if he is unable to do so, and no other piece of the same side can be so moved as to put him out of check, that side loses the game. Hence it is possible, though it is more difficult, for a player to win with fewer and less valuable pieces on the board than his opponent. The king may move in any direction, but one square only at a time, except once during the game, when he "castles", that is, the king and rook are allowed to cross each other, the rook being brought to the side of the king, and the king then moved to the other side of the rook. Castling is only permitted if neither piece has moved previously, and if the king is not in check. When a king, though not in check, cannot move without going into check, and no other man can be moved, it is called stale-mate, and the game is drawn.

Any piece except a pawn moves in the same way in taking a piece as at other times, and occupies the position of the piece taken, which is removed from the board.

Dominoes.—There are about as many different methods of playing dominoes as there are varieties of card games; but the most popular are known as the "block" and the "draw" games, for two or four players. The twenty-eight oblong bone or ivory pieces called "cards" are laid face downwards on the table and well mixed. Each player draws one; and if four persons are playing, the two highest compete against the others, and the lowest of all wins the "pose" (lead). In the block game each player draws seven pieces from the stock, leaving (if only two play) fourteen on the table to form the reserve. The winner of the "pose" lays down a domino face upward. The next player must match it at one end or the other with a card from his hand; and so on alternately. If one is unable to play, he calls "a go", and loses his turn. If neither can play, the game is said to be blocked. The first player who succeeds in playing out all his cards calls "domino" and wins the round, scoring the number of pips on the cards his opponent still holds. The game is usually fifty or one hundred up.

The draw game differs from the block game in one essential only. When a player cannot match from his hand, he may draw a domino from the reserve if he pleases. If the card is unsuitable he must take it into his hand. A rule sometimes enforced is that a player who commences to draw from the reserve must go on drawing from it until a suitable card turns up. In either case the dominoes must be retained by the player.

Draughts.—Draughts is a game for two persons, played on a board with sixty-four squares, coloured light and dark alternately. The pieces consist of two sets of twelve wooden or ivory discs, coloured usually black and white respectively. They are arranged on the white squares if the lowest corner square at each player's right is black, and *vice versa*, and except when taking the opponent's pieces can only move one square at a time in a forward diagonal direction. The players, moving alternately, endeavour to take each other's men, or block them so that they cannot

move. A capture is accomplished by passing over a hostile piece occupying a contiguous square into a vacant square immediately behind; and several pieces may be taken at a time, provided there is such a vacant square behind each. The movement of capture is also diagonal and forward. When a man reaches the last row on the adversary's side of the board he is "crowned" king by having another piece placed on top, and may then move backwards as well as forwards. The "huff" or "blow" is the right exercised by a player, before moving himself, to take an opponent's piece which did not take one of his men, though in a position to do so. If he prefers he may request his adversary to revoke his last move and make the capture. If, however, the latter in that move took a piece he is not liable to either penalty.

Halma.—Halma is played on a board having 256 squares. At the four corners a "yard" of thirteen squares is enclosed, in which are placed the thirteen men owned by each player.

Each may play against all, or two adjacent players combine as partners to play against the others. An additional line, taking in six extra squares, is added at two corners for a game in which only two persons play, each having nineteen pieces. Each player in turn moves one piece by either a "step" or a "hop". A step is a move of one square in any direction except backwards. A hop may be taken over any piece, one's own or an opponent's, and continued, with winding or zigzag movements over any others, provided there is a vacant square behind each piece to touch *en route* or rest in, and that no move is in a backward direction.

As the object of the game is to be the first to pack one's men into the opposite yard, one should endeavour to form ladders for back pieces to hop over, being careful to block them against the opponent's pieces, while making use of his ladders if possible.

Reversi.—Reversi is a game played on a draught-board by two persons, each provided with thirty-two counters, which are coloured red

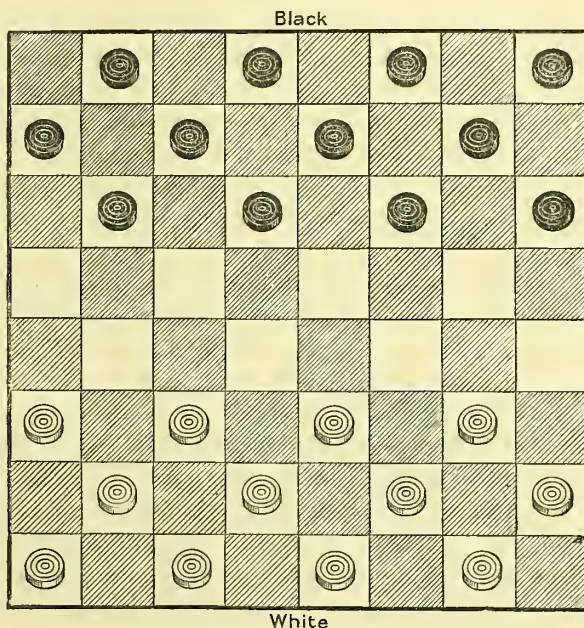


Fig. 610.—Draught-board: the Pieces arranged ready for play.

In England the board is arranged as above, with a *black* square at the right-hand corner nearest each player, the play being on the white squares; but in Scotland the board is placed with a *white* square at each right-hand corner, and the play is on the black squares.

one side and black on the other. The first player puts a counter in one of the centre squares red side up, the second follows suit, using the black side of the counter, and this move is repeated, the four centre squares being first occupied, after which each player must alternately place a counter on a vacant square next to one of his opponent's counters in such a position that he can reverse one or more of the latter's pieces. This can only be done when the hostile counters lie in a straight unbroken line between one of the player's counters and a vacant square on which he can place another piece. If a player cannot follow this rule he loses his turn until there is a suitable square vacant next to one of his opponent's pieces. When the players have played all their counters, and the board is covered, whoever owns most counters wins the game.

A counter may be reversed over and over again during play, but cannot be moved from the square on which it was originally placed. If a player fails to reverse all the pieces he is entitled to, he must immediately do so when the error is pointed out to him by his opponent.

CARDS.

All Fours.—All Fours may be played by two or four persons with a pack of fifty-two cards. The players cut for the deal; *i.e.* each takes a few cards from the top of the pack, turning up the undermost. He who cuts the highest card deals. Six cards are dealt to each player, and the thirteenth or twenty-fifth card, as the case may be, is turned up for trumps. If the turn-up is a knave the dealer scores 1 point. The game contains four chances—"high", the highest trump out, the original holder of which scores 1 point; "low", the lowest trump out, the original holder of which scores 1 point; "jack", the knave of trumps, for which 1 point is scored by the player who holds it at the conclusion of the game; "game", for which 1 point is scored by the player who can, at the end of the game, show the highest reckoning by cards won in tricks, counting 4 for each ace, 3 for each king, 2 for each queen, 1 for each knave, and 10 for each ten. If two players have an equal reckoning, the one nearest the dealer's left hand scores the point for "game". If no player has court cards or tens, the elder hand (the player immediately on the dealer's left hand) scores the point for game. If only one trump is out, points for both "high" and "low" are scored by the player who holds it.

If the elder hand dislikes his cards he says "I beg". In that case either he is allowed to score one point, or three more cards are dealt to each player, and the next card is turned up for trumps. If it is of the same suit as the former turn-up each player receives three more cards, and so on until there is a change in trumps. Only the elder hand has the privilege of "begging", and he may only do so once. Players must follow suit or trump if possible, and the highest card of the same suit wins the trick unless it is trumped. The penalty for a revoke is the forfeit of one point.

Bézique.—Bézique is usually played by two persons with two packs shuffled together, all cards under seven being discarded. An extra pack must be supplied for each additional player. When more than two play, all compete against one another, or sides may be formed. The highest cut wins the deal. Eight cards are dealt to each; the next card—the seventeenth if there are only two players—is turned up for trumps. If it is a seven the dealer scores 10. After a trick has been won by the holder of a seven of trumps he may exchange that card for the turn-up, and score 10.

The cards rank in the following order—ace, ten, king, queen, knave, nine, eight, seven. The highest card of a suit or a trump wins the trick, but it is not compulsory to follow suit. The winner of a trick has the lead for the next trick, but before playing he draws the top card of the “talon” (the stock or remainder of the pack not dealt), his opponent taking the next.

If a player can “declare” he does so immediately after winning a trick, and before drawing a card. A “declaration” is made by laying face upwards on the table any one of the following combinations—four aces, 100 points; four kings, 80; four queens, 60; four knaves, 40; a “royal marriage” (king and queen of trumps), 40; a “marriage” (king and queen of common suit), 20; “bézique” (queen of spades and knave of diamonds if trump is clubs or hearts, and queen of clubs and knave of hearts if trump is spades or diamonds), 40; “double bézique” (two queens of spades and two knaves of diamonds or two queens of clubs and two knaves of hearts according to what suit is trump), 500; sequence (the five highest trumps), 250. Only one declaration can be made at a time. After bézique has been declared the queen and knave cannot be used in any other combination except double bézique; nor may a royal marriage be counted after a sequence, though it may before. All cards declared are, of course, available in the ordinary play.

When only two cards of the stock are left, one of which is the turn-up, the winner of the last trick scores ten and draws the upper card, and his adversary the trumps. The players then take into their hands any cards that they may have declared, and no further declaration can be made. The last eight tricks are then played out. At this stage it is compulsory to follow suit, or if that is not possible, to trump. The players next count up all the aces and tens they have won in tricks, and score 10 for each. The game is 1000 up. If it is won by 500 or more than 500 it is called a “double”, counting two towards the *partie* or set of three games which must be won.

Polish Bézique.—In Polish Bézique the cards used in declaring, including all such cards won in tricks, are laid on the table face downwards. No declaration may be made with a card actually in hand until it has won a trick. The sevens, eights, nines, and tens (except the ten of trumps) taken in tricks are laid aside, 10 being scored at the end of each round for each ten won.

When the out-put is finished each player scores the value of any

combination he has been able to effect during the progress of play. "Compound" declarations are allowable, *i.e.* a card may be used any number of times to assist in forming the different combinations. The game is usually 2000 up.

Bridge Whist.—Four players. Whist pack. Game, 30 points gained by tricks only. Rubber, 100 points. Each trick above six, when spades are trumps, 2 points; clubs, 4; diamonds, 6; hearts, 8; and 12 when there are no trumps. Lowest cut wins the deal. All the cards are dealt round. The dealer examines his hand, and decides either to name the trump suit, declare "no trumps", or say "I leave it to you, partner", by whom the declaration must be made. The adversary on the dealer's left has the right to "double" (double the value of each trick), or, not desiring to do so, says "May I lead, partner?" the partner replying either "Yes" or "I double". The other side may "re-double". The first card having been led, the dealer's partner exposes his hand, the dealer playing both hands. Honours as in whist; five in one hand score 10 times the value of the trump-suit trick; four, 8 times its value; should the partner hold the fifth, a single value is added. Five honours held conjointly (three in one hand, two in the other), 5 times the value of the trump-suit trick; four, 4 times its value; three, 3 times its value. In a hand played without trumps, three aces conjointly, 30; four, 40. Grand Slam (winning 13 tricks), 40. Little Slam (12 tricks), 20. A player holding no trumps scores twice the value of the trump-suit trick (Chicane). Honours, Grand Slam, Little Slam, and Chicane are unaffected by "doubling"; points gained for them are added to the rubber. The loser's score is subtracted from the winner's.

Casino.—Casino is played with a pack of fifty-two cards, preferably by four players, though any number up to twelve may play. The highest cut wins the deal. Each player receives four cards at each round; and after the first round, but not after any others, four cards are laid face upwards on the table.

Each person plays one card at a time, with which he may take not only every card of the same denomination on the table, but every two or more cards which combined show an equivalent number of pips. Court cards can only be paired. The cards that are taken up must be laid aside and not played again.

If possible a player endeavours to "clear the board" by matching all the centre cards, for which "sweep" he scores 1 point. If at any time during the game, or in consequence of a clear board, a player is unable to match or "build up", he places his card in the centre. A player can only "build up" when he is able to head his opponent's lead with another card, the combined number of pips shown on the two cards being equal to the number on one which he holds in his hand. Thus, A plays a two, which B heads with a three, calling out as he does so, "fives", having a five in his hand with which he hopes to take the trick. A, however, may place a five on top, calling "tens", and win the trick with a ten he holds. The centre cards may be requisitioned to continue a build "from the table".

A player may "call" when he holds two or more cards of the same denomination as at least one card on the board, *i.e.* he lays down one of them, naming it in the plural—"threes" for instance—and by so doing prevents his adversary from taking those cards with a card of any other denomination—a six in this particular case.

The game continues until the stock is exhausted, when the winner of the last trick takes up any cards left on the board. The cards in the possession of each player are reckoned up, and points scored as follows:—great casino (the ten of diamonds), 2 points; little casino (the two of spades), 1; the cards (having a larger number than one's adversary), 3; spades (having a majority of this suit), 1; aces, each 1; "sweep", 1.

The player who first scores 11 points wins the game.

Cribbage.—Cribbage is played with a pack of fifty-two cards, preferably by two players. The lowest cut wins the deal, ace counting lowest of all. The dealer shuffles and his adversary cuts the cards; and from the heap which would have been undermost, if the pack had been reunited, the former deals five cards to each. The remaining cards of the section he has dealt from he places on top of the other heap.

Both players select two cards from their hands to form the "crib". These four cards are the property of the dealer, and are laid aside face downwards until the end of a round. The elder hand then removes a few cards from the top of the pack and the dealer draws the uppermost card of the remaining heap. The former replaces those he has lifted, and the card drawn is then placed face upwards on top of all. If it is a knave, the dealer scores "2 for his heels".

The elder hand plays, at the same time calling the value of his card, and the dealer either matches it with another of the same face value, scoring 2 for "a pair", or plays a card the pips of which added to those on his adversary's card count fifteen, or as near that number as possible, either more or less. If he succeeds in making exactly fifteen, he scores 2. The elder hand then endeavours again to match, or to increase the number of pips to thirty-one or as near that number as possible, but not more than it. The dealer follows in like manner if the sum-total is not yet thirty-one. A player who is unable to make exactly or less than that number cries "go", and his opponent plays any card or cards he can, scoring 2 points if he makes exactly thirty-one, and 1, if he makes less.

The players next reckon up the combinations contained in their hands, the elder first, and afterwards the dealer, who possesses a second hand in the "crib". The turn-up card may always be included to form any of the following combinations: every two, three, or four cards which together make fifteen, 2 points; a pair (two cards of any sort), 2; a pair royal (three cards of any sort), 6; a double pair royal (four cards of a sort), 12; a flush (three cards of a suit), 3; a full flush (four cards of a suit), 4; sequence of three or four cards, 3 or 4; knave of trumps, in hand, "1 for his nob". Game is 61 points, the score being marked up with pegs on a board having sixty holes on either side.

In three-handed cribbage all the players are against one another, and each contributes only one card to the crib, the fourth being added from the pack after the deal. If four persons play, they enter into partnerships of two each, and each player contributes one card to the crib.

Écarté.—Écarté is played by two persons with a pack of thirty-two cards, all under seven being discarded. The cards rank in the following order:—King, queen, knave, ace, ten, nine, eight, seven. The highest cut wins the deal, and each player receives first three and then two cards, making five in all. The eleventh card is turned up for trumps; should it happen to be a king, the dealer scores 1 point, calling out as he does so “I mark king”. The holder of the king of trumps scores 1 point, provided he declares it before the first trick has been played.

If the elder player is dissatisfied with his hand he exclaims “*Je propose*”, meaning that he desires to exchange any or all of his cards. If the dealer also wishes to discard, he accepts the proposal by asking “How many?” and then dealing to his opponent the required number, and exchanging as many as he requires himself. The écarté (rejected) card is laid aside. Discarding may be continued until one or other player declares himself satisfied, or until the “talon” is exhausted. If, however, the dealer is satisfied with his hand and does not wish to discard, he “refuses” his opponent’s proposal, but in such a case the adversary doubles any points he makes, except in “marking king”.

Five points constitute game. It is not compulsory to follow suit, but a trick can be taken only by a higher card of the same suit, or by a trump. The winner of three or four tricks scores 1 point, and of all the tricks (“*la vole*”) 2 points.

Euchre.—Two players. Whist pack. Lowest cut wins the deal. Five cards to each player (first 3, then 2); eleventh card is trumps. Knave of trumps (“right bower”) ranks highest, then knave of same colour (“left bower”), other cards as usual. If the non-dealer thinks to win 3 tricks, he “challenges” by calling “I order it up”, whereupon the dealer discards one card and takes up the trump. Having a weak hand, the non-dealer may say “Pass”, and the dealer either replies “I take it up” or “I turn it down”. In the latter case the elder hand chooses which suit shall be trumps, or may “pass” again. Non-dealer leads, his opponent if possible follows suit. It is not obligatory to take or trump a trick. Game, 5 points. Winning 3 or 4 tricks (“making the point”), 1; winning 5 tricks (“the march”), 2. If a player who has “challenged” loses, he is euchred, his opponent scoring 2. The challenger plays to “make the point”, and the non-challenger to “euchre” his adversary. This game may also be played by four persons.

Loo.—Loo may be played by any number of persons, with a pack of fifty-two cards. In *limited loo* the dealer contributes three counters to the pool, and the other players any number agreed upon. Three cards are then dealt singly to each player in regular order, as well as an extra hand, either first or last but one, called a “dummy”. After the deal is finished, the next card is turned up for trumps.

Before examining his own cards the dealer asks each player in turn, beginning at his left, whether he intends playing his own hand or dummy, or throwing up his hand. Finally, he proposes the same question to himself. The first player who says he "stands" (does not throw up his hand) puts down his highest card (trump if possible), and the others endeavour to take the trick.

The winner of a trick is entitled to a third share of the pool, and the holder of three tricks wins the whole pool. All players who "stand" and fail to make any tricks, or any who break the laws of the game, are "looted" and must contribute a fixed number of counters, generally the same number as the dealer, towards the next pool. The knave of trumps ("pam") usually ranks above the ace.

In *unlimited loo* the pool is not divided, and only won by holders of three tricks, or left untouched, and added to the next pool. If it is won, the next round becomes "bold stand", *i.e.* all the players must stand in order to make a loo. Players who are "looted" pay double the price of the deal.

Matrimony.—Matrimony may be played by any number of persons, from five to fourteen. The five chances

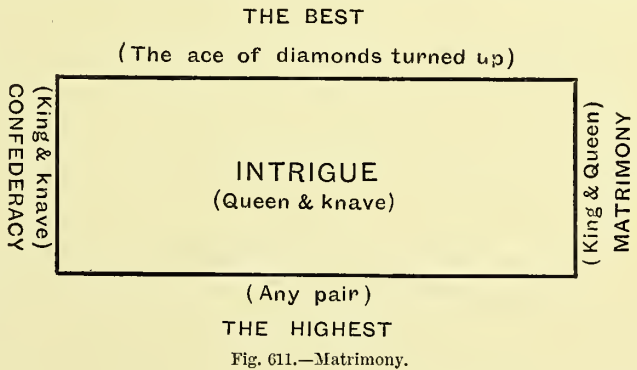


Fig. 611.—Matrimony.

of the game are marked on a board, as shown in the illustration. The lowest cut wins the deal. The number of counters staked by each player is one less than the number staked by the dealer. Every player may put all his stake on any single chance, or may divide it and put it on several. Two cards are then dealt face downwards to each player, and one face upwards.

In hand the ace of diamonds is of no special value, but when it is turned up, the holder clears the board. Failing that, the king, queen, or next highest card in that suit wins the "best chance", whether it is turned up or in hand. The players then show their hands, and the holders of other chances win the counters staked on them. If two players hold similar chances, the first in seniority in the order of deal wins. Any ungained chance stands over until the next deal, and the stakes on it may be increased or not, at will.

Napoleon.—"Nap" is played with a pack of fifty-two cards, five being dealt to each player. The elder hand and then the other players in rotation guarantee to take a certain number of tricks, whether two, three, or four, until one "goes nap", *i.e.* guarantees to take all five. He then becomes the "stand player", leads off, his first card deciding the trump suit, and plays against all the rest, whose object it is to prevent him from winning the

five tricks. If he wins, he receives double stakes from everybody, but if he loses he pays double all round.

Failing a proclamation of "nap" from any player, he who guarantees to take most tricks becomes the "stand player", but receives or pays only one counter all round according as he happens to win or lose.

Piquet.—Piquet is a game for two players with a pack of thirty-two cards, all under seven being discarded. The lowest cut wins the deal. Twelve cards are dealt to each player, two at a time, the other eight cards forming the stock. The "elder" player then rejects from his hand any card or cards he may desire to exchange for an equivalent number from the "talon" or stock; he must exchange one card, but cannot exceed five. The dealer follows by discarding either three cards or none as he pleases. If, before discarding, the "elder" player finds he has not a court card in his hand, he declares a "*carte blanche*", and, stating how many cards he intends to reject, tells the dealer to discard. When this has been done he shows his hand to satisfy his opponent that his declaration is real, and then discards. Should the dealer have "*carte blanche*" he must wait until the elder hand has discarded, and must make his declaration and show his hand before taking fresh cards from the talon. The holder of "*carte blanche*" scores ten points towards the "*repique*" or "*pique*", two of the three chances in the game, and prevents his opponent from winning either of these chances.

The elder hand (A) next reckons the value of his longest suit, and, declaring it, asks "Is it good?" His opponent (B) replies "It is not good" if he (B) possesses more cards (or in the event of the number of cards being equal, more pips) in that or any other suit than A. If B has an equal number he replies "It is equal", and if less, "It is good". The holder of the best suit wins "the point" and scores for as many cards as he possesses of that suit, 1 point for each. In the case of ties, neither player scores. When pips are reckoned, ace counts eleven, and court cards ten each.

The players next (the eldest hand first) reckon up the value of any of the following combinations they may possess:—*quatorze* (the four aces, kings, queens, knaves, or tens), 14 points; triplets (the same cards), 3; *quart* (four successive cards of a suit), 16; *septième* (seven successive cards of a suit), 17; *huitième* (eight successive cards of a suit), 18.

When a player can score thirty points by his hand before his opponent has scored 1 he wins the "*repique*", i.e. he scores 90 points instead of 30. With the exception of the quatorzes and triplets, all combinations, as well as the "point", must be shown so that their value may be seen, and in the case of ties in any of these combinations neither player scores.

When the hands have been reckoned the play begins. Players must, if possible, follow suit, and the highest card of a suit wins the trick. The winner of the last trick scores 2; the other tricks count 1 point each, but only if taken by a card above a nine in value. When the elder hand can reckon 30 by his hand and play before his opponent can score 1, he wins the "*pique*" and scores 60 instead of 30.

The winner of the majority of tricks scores 10 points for "cards", and the winner of all the tricks gains the third chance in the game, called the "*capot*", and scores 40. In the case of ties neither player scores. Game consists of 101 points.

Pope Joan.—Pope Joan may be played by almost any number of persons with a pack of fifty-two cards and a board specially sold for the purpose. The board, which is divided into eight compartments, is "dressed" by the dealer; that is, he distributes among several compartments either fifteen counters of his own, or fifteen contributed by the players as agreed upon. On the ace, king, queen, knave, and game are staked 5 counters, one on each; on matrimony (king and queen of a suit), 2 counters; on intrigue (knave and queen of a suit), 2 counters; and on pope (nine of diamonds), 6.

The eight of diamonds is rejected from the pack, and the rest of the cards are dealt face downwards to the players, a spare hand being set aside to form the "stops". The last card is turned up for trumps, and should it happen to be any one indicated on the board the dealer claims the stake allotted to it. If he turns up pope, he takes the stakes on pope and on game, and receives a counter from each player for every card dealt to him. The four kings and the seven of diamonds are fixed "stops", beyond which no sequence can proceed, and the dealer alone may refer during the game to the spare hand to discover which other cards are "stops" also. For example, if the ten of hearts is in the spare hand, the nine of that suit is a "stop". Unless the game is determined by the dealer turning up pope, the player on his left hand begins by laying down a card, preferably of the longest sequence he holds. The player who has the next highest card in the sequence follows, and so on until a "stop" card is played. The holder of it leads next. When a player holds any card or combination marked on the board he may only claim the stake on it, provided he has played out such card or cards. The first to play out all his cards claims the stake for game as well as one counter from each player for every card still in hand. The player who holds pope still unplayed is exempt from the penalty.

Quinze.—Quinze resembles *vingt-et-un*, but is played by two persons only, and the number of pips made must not exceed fifteen. Ace counts only one.

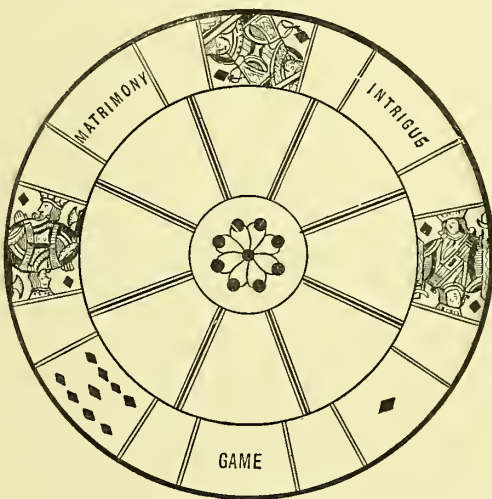


Fig. 612.—Pope Joan.

Vingt-et-un.—Vingt-et-un is played with a pack of fifty-two cards and counters. One card is dealt face downwards to each player, who, after looking at it, stakes on his chance of making twenty-one with the additional card dealt to him in the second round. A court card counts ten, and an ace eleven or one as may seem best to the holder. The dealer (who does not stake) may, after examining his own cards, "challenge the board", receiving from all whose hands are less, and paying to all whose hands are more, than his own; or he asks each player in turn if he will "stand" (take no more cards from the pack), or if he requires one or more cards. The player who holds a low number draws until he increases the total value of his cards to twenty-one, or as near that number as he can venture without overdrawing. Should he overdraw he pays his stake to the dealer. A player with two cards of the same value may divide them, staking on each, and making up their value from the stock. The dealer also takes a card or cards from the stock if he requires to do so, and when content says, "I stand". The players—those who have not overdrawn—then lay their cards face downwards on the table, and the dealer pays single stakes to those whose cards are nearer twenty-one in value than his own, and double to the holder of a "natural", *i.e.* a court card, or ten and an ace. If the dealer has a "natural" he receives double stakes from all (except the holders of a "natural", who pay single stakes), and if he has not a "natural", single stakes from all the players who hold a less number than himself. Ties pay the dealer. Before dealing round the second card he may cause all the players to double their stakes. When a "natural" is declared, the deal passes to the holder of the "natural" or to the next player on the dealer's left, as may be arranged.

A round of ordinary vingt-et-un may be succeeded by seven variations, the deal not changing hands until all these have been played out.

Imaginary Ten.—Each player adds ten pips to his first cards, and may either decline or take another card as he sees fit.

Blind Vingt-et-un.—The player stakes before receiving two cards, and must either stand or take one or more cards before examining his hand.

Sympathy and Antipathy.—The player stakes on the chance of receiving, in response to his call for either sympathy or antipathy, two cards either similar or dissimilar in colour,

Rouge et Noir.—The player stakes on his chance of receiving, in response to his call, either rouge or noir, a red card or a black.

Self and Company.—The dealer lays two cards on the table, face downwards, one for "self" and one for "company". The players stake on "company". If the two cards are a pair, the dealer wins. If not, he deals the cards face upwards until one pairs with the card of either self or company, receiving in the first instance or paying in the other.

Pips.—The dealer gives each player two cards. He pays one counter for each pip to the players who have more, and receives from those who have fewer pips than himself.

Clock.—Players stake all round. Thirteen cards are dealt from the pack face upwards in a heap, the dealer counting up to ten, then knave, queen, king, as he lays down the cards. If a card turns up corresponding to the call, he wins all the stakes. If not, he pays each player.

. **Whist**.—Whist is played by four persons with a pack of fifty-two cards. The players either cut or draw for partners, the two highest playing against the others. The lowest cut wins the deal. Each player receives thirteen cards dealt singly. The last card is turned up for trumps, and is not taken into the dealer's hand until after the first trick. The elder hand plays first, followed by the other three players in turn. It is compulsory to follow suit, if possible, and the penalty for a revoke is the forfeiture of three tricks. The object of the game is to win as many tricks as possible. The highest card of a suit, or a trump card, wins the trick. If a player cannot follow suit he must either trump or throw out a card of any other suit. The cards rank in the following order:—ace (highest in play though lowest in cutting), king, queen, knave, ten, and the rest in the usual order. The winner of a trick leads in the next, and so on until all the cards are played out.

Six tricks are called "the book", after which every trick scores one point. Court cards of the trump suit are called honours, and a side holding all four scores 4 points, or if holding three, 2 points, unless it is agreed not to count honours. Five points make the game. If the opponents' score stands at three or four when the game is won, it is called a "single", counting 1 "game point"; if the opponents are less than three, a "double" (2 game points); and if they have made no score, a "treble" (3 game points). The side which secures two games out of the three wins the rubber, and scores 2 additional points. If, for example, they have won a "double, treble, and the rub" against a "single" their final score is 6 (3 points for the treble, 2 for the double, and 2 for the rubber, less 1 point for the single which they lost). The following rules, known as "Bob Short's Rules", are excellent:—

For First Hand or Lead.—1. Lead from your strong suit and be cautious how you change suits, and keep a commanding card to bring the strong suit in again.

2. Lead through the strong suit and up to the weak, but not in trumps unless you are very strong in them.

3. Lead the highest of a sequence; but if you have a *quart* (four successive cards in a suit) or *quint* (five successive cards in a suit to a king) lead the lowest.

4. Lead through an honour, particularly if the game be much against you.

5. Lead your best trump if your adversaries are four points up and if you have no honours, but not if you have four trumps, unless you have a sequence.

6. Lead a trump if you have four or five, or a strong hand, but not if weak.

7. Having ace, king, and two or three small cards of a suit, lead ace and king if weak in trumps, but a small one if strong in them.

8. If you have the last trump with some winning cards and one losing card only, lead the losing card.

9. Return your partner's lead, not the adversaries', and if you had only three originally return the best, though not necessarily immediately, when you have won with the king, queen, or knave, and have only small ones, or when you hold a good sequence, have a strong suit, or have five trumps.

10. Do not lead from ace queen, or ace knave.

11. Do not lead an ace unless you have a king.

12. Do not lead a thirteenth card unless trumps are out.

13. Do not trump a thirteenth card unless you are last player or want the lead.

14. Keep a small card to return your partner's lead.

15. Be cautious in trumping a card when strong in trumps, particularly if you have a strong suit.

16. Having only a few strong trumps make them when you can.

17. If your partner refuses to trump a suit of which he knows you have not the best, lead your best trump.

18. When you hold all the remaining trumps play one, and then try to put the lead into your partner's hands.

19. Remember how many of each suit are out and what is the best card left in each hand.

20. Never force your partner if you are weak in trumps, unless you have a renounce (*i.e.* are void in a suit) or want the odd trick (*i.e.* the first trick over and above "the book").

21. When playing for the odd trick be cautious of trumping, especially if your partner is likely to trump a suit; make all the tricks you can early, and avoid finessing.

22. If you are able to take a trick, and have a sequence, win with the lowest.

For Second Hand.—With king, queen, and small cards, play a small one when strong in trumps; but if weak, play the king. With ace, king, queen, or knave only and a small card, play the small one.

For Third Hand.—With ace and queen, play queen, and if she wins return the ace. In all other cases the third hand should play his best card when his partner has led a low one.

For all the Players.—Attend to the game and play accordingly.

Hold the turn-up card as long as possible, and so keep your adversaries from a knowledge of your strength.

Retain a high trump as long as you can.

When in doubt, win the trick.

Play the game fairly, keep your temper, and don't talk.

OUTDOOR GAMES.

The object of outdoor amusements is the combination of healthful exercise with intelligent occupation. In games, competition is commonly the means by which interest is maintained; consequently, as recreations they are inferior to such field sports as hunting, shooting, and fishing, which offer attractions beyond the satisfaction that results from mere successful performances. These sports, however, are not within the reach of all, nor at all seasons within the reach of the few who have the means and leisure to follow them.

There is usually some accommodation land with all country residences. From a paddock, meadow, or orchard a clear space may be fenced off, and this, if a little attention be given to the turf, may soon be brought into excellent condition for cricket, field games, and even lawn-tennis. Such games as football, hockey, lacrosse, and garden-golf, which require space rather than absolutely level surface, are best played in a field. The cricket-ground may also be used for lawn-tennis, ring-goal, and "All England" croquet. Very fair golf links may be improvised upon any grazing farm, and the game is often much appreciated by visitors. There is little lack of outdoor amusement in the country; almost all the games mentioned in this article may be played there at little expense.

The outdoor amusements best suited to the pleasure-grounds and gardens of suburban residences are lawn-tennis, croquet, and bowls. In town houses where the space available is a gravelled court or floored yard of small dimensions, almost the only games which afford exercise and amusement, yet call for skill, are such as rope-quoits, and the different varieties of the ball game known as "fives".

It is not within the compass of this work to treat any sport or pastime exhaustively. Such particulars as space can be found for refer chiefly to the general character of, and the requisites for and the cost of the various games, and are intended as a guide to the householder in making the most of the accommodation he possesses and obtaining the necessary equipment.

Archery.—Archery is growing in popularity, there being now upwards of 100 clubs in the United Kingdom open to both sexes. It is a healthful and invigorating pastime, especially for ladies, since there is no great inducement to practise it to the point of absolute fatigue.

Any meadow or open space in the woodland will serve for butts. The targets are 4 feet in diameter, and are hung upon iron tripods. The gold centre scores 9 points, the red ring 7, the blue 5, the white 3, and the green border 1. The usual distance is 60 yards. In Scotland it is customary to shoot at 180 or 200 yards, and count all hits as 2 points; if no arrow hits, then the nearest shot within 4 bows' lengths counts. A lady's bow pulls 28 or 30 lbs.; a gentleman's up to 60, occasionally much more. A bow of 42 lbs. is sufficiently strong for all ranges up to 100 yards. The targets may be

placed at both ends of the ground; the archers stand before one, and after shooting the round, change ends.

The proper position to assume is to point the left toe to the mark and stand at right angles to the target; then place the arrow on the string, with the "cock" feather to the left, the shaft resting upon the left hand to the left of the bow. The thumb and fingers grip the string, the left hand being raised at the same time, and the string is released when it has been drawn to the chin. The bow should be drawn to the same extent each time, and the required difference of elevation for various ranges made by aiming at the top or bottom of the target, or at some point above or below it.

A serviceable bow may be obtained for a guinea. It should not be strung except when actually in use, and should be stored in a dry cool place. Arrows cost from 6s. the dozen.

Bowls.—Bowls is a game of great antiquity. It was made an "unlawful game" in the Tudor period. A century ago no country house, no thriving village, was without its bowling-green, and the game is still generally popular, especially with people who no longer care for brisk exercise.

Bowls may be played on any lawn or fairly level stretch of sward, 70 feet or more in length. The requisites are a mark-ball, called the "jack"; a pair of bowls for each player; a measuring-tape, standard, or callipers; and a small piece of carpet or other material, called the "footer", which is placed to indicate where the player must stand when delivering the bowls at the "jack".

The game may be played by several single players, or by two or more partners on each side. The jack must be placed at least 21 yards from the "footer", and not less than 3 feet from any edge of the green. The "leader" bowls first at the jack, and is followed by his opponent—in case of partners, one of each side alternately delivering both his bowls. The object of the players is to get the bowls of their side to lie nearer the jack than those of their opponents. It is allowable to bowl so as to move the jack, or knock away the bowls of opponents, or to block the approaches to the jack. The side which has a bowl nearest to the jack scores a point for that bowl, and, in addition, a point for any other bowl nearer the jack than the nearest bowl of the opposing side. The number of points to the game is decided by the players before commencing. After each "end" is concluded the footer is taken by the last player and placed where the jack lies, and the jack is placed at the other end.

An end is void if the jack is struck off the green. Bowls played or knocked off the green, or against any fence on the green, or while the jack or any other bowl is moving, are "dead" bowls. A bowl slipped prematurely is deemed played unless the player can recover it without moving from the "footer". Bowls played to block an opponent must be bowled at least 3 yards, measuring from the footer, otherwise they are dead. Dead bowls interfering with the play can be at once removed from the green.

The jack should be $3\frac{1}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter. The bowls have a bias, which causes them to take a curved course. They may be of any size,

weight, or bias. A set of 4 pairs of 5-inch lignum-vitæ bowls, with 2 jacks, costs a guinea; or the set may consist of 4 pairs of assorted sizes, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches. Presentation bowls cost from half a guinea the pair.

Cricket.—However rough the cricket-ground may be, the grass should be short, and the “pitch” an absolutely level stretch of turf about 40 by 20 yards. The wickets are distant from each other 22 yards; each wicket is 8 inches wide, and consists of three upright stumps and two bails, the latter being placed across the top of the former. The bowling crease extends 3 feet each side of the wicket, and has a return crease at each end behind the wicket. The popping crease is 4 feet from the wicket, parallel to it, and is considered unlimited in length.

After the rival sides have tossed for the choice of either taking the bat or fielding, two men are sent to the wickets bat in hand. The opposite or fielding side are all simultaneously engaged, one (the bowler) being stationed behind one wicket for the purpose of bowling his ball against the opposite wicket, where his coadjutor (the wicket-keeper) stands ready to catch the ball should it pass near him; the other fielders are placed in such parts of the field as is judged most favourable for stopping the ball after it has been struck by the batsman or missed by the wicket-keeper. It is the object of the batsman to prevent the ball delivered by the bowler from reaching his wicket, either by merely stopping it with his bat or by driving it away to a distant part of the field. Should the ball be driven any distance, the two batsmen run across and exchange wickets, and continue to do so as long as there is no risk of any of the fielders striking the stumps with the ball while they are out of their position near the wickets. Each time the batsmen run between the wickets is counted as a “run”, and is marked to the credit of the striker of the ball. If the batsman allows the ball to carry away a bail or a stump, if he knocks down any part of his own wicket, if any part of his person stops a ball that would have otherwise reached his wicket, or if he strikes a ball so that it is caught by one of the fielders before it reaches the ground, he is “out”—that is, he gives up his bat to one of his own side; and so the game goes on until all the men of one team have played and been put out. This constitutes what is called an “innings”. The teams now change positions, those who have batted going out to field, and those who have fielded going in to bat. Each side has eleven players. Generally after two “innings” each have been played by the contestants the game comes to an end, that side being the victors who can score the greatest number of runs.

In single-wicket the bowling stump is 22 yards from the wicket. When there are fewer than 5 players on each side, bounds extend 22 yards on each side of and in a line with the wicket, and the ball must be hit beyond the bounds to entitle the striker to a run. A run cannot be obtained unless the batsman touches the bowling stump or crease with his bat, and returns to the popping crease. When the striker hits the ball, one of his feet must be on the ground behind the popping crease or no run can be allowed. It is not usual to take byes, leg-byes, or overthrows; the fieldsman returns the

ball to the bowler, and the striker may run until the ball is so returned. Three runs are counted for a lost ball.

Croquetta.—Croquetta is a substitute for lawn-tennis, where a lively game is desired and there is no space for a tennis court. A fold 6 feet square is marked out, and round this is drawn another square, each side 30 feet long, if the ground will allow of that length. The court lines are drawn from the corners of the "fold" to the corners of the outer square. A net encloses the fold. Each outside line forms a base from which to serve; each diagonal line a boundary of the service court. Each player defends a court and serves in turn into the opposite court; the ball is returned into either the server's court or his partner's court on his left. If it falls into the fold, the players try to extract it, and the first to succeed scores a point for his side. A point also is scored for serving correctly a ball which the opposite side fails to return, and otherwise as in lawn-tennis.

Croquet.—This favourite lawn game suffered an eclipse on the introduction of lawn-tennis, but is again popular. Mr. Lillie in his history of the game states that "as long as billiards is in favour, it is hard to see how croquet, which is outdoor billiards, can permanently go out". The original game—"crinoline" croquet it is now called—went out because skilful players found it too easy. As a garden game the old style will probably be found as amusing as the new six-hooped game.

The club ground was formerly 40 by 30 yards, it is now 35 by 28, for the Association or "All England" setting, the hoops being placed 7 yards from the side lines, the pegs the same distance from the boundaries, 7 yards intervening between the central hoops and pegs. The different methods of setting are shown in the diagrams; there are also a "Maltese Cross" and various fancy settings. On small lawns the object in setting should be to make the play difficult; otherwise a skilful player will "command" the balls and do the round in one break, thus taking most of the interest out of the game.

The hoops vary in width, 4 inches being the All England size; they may be blue or white. The pegs are $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter; the balls are $3\frac{5}{8}$ inches and weigh 14 ozs.; the mallets are 3 inches in diameter, with handles 32 inches long; they may be of any weight, may have the bottom round, or sliced away and the face covered with leather or india-rubber or left plain. The ball should always be struck with the face of the mallet. Mallets usually weigh from one to three pounds, the lighter being preferable for manœuvring, and those with india-rubber-covered heads for driving two balls in such a way that they keep close together for a great distance.

The game begins as soon as the first ball is struck from the starting-point, and the object of the players is to drive their ball through the hoops in the proper order, and leave the ball where it may be of use to a partner, but unlikely to be hit by an opponent. Another player's ball can be hit only after making a hoop, and cannot be struck a second time by the same player until a further point is secured. Striking another ball is called "roquet", and after roquet "croquet" must be taken. To do this the player's ball is

Fig. 615.—Common Croquet.

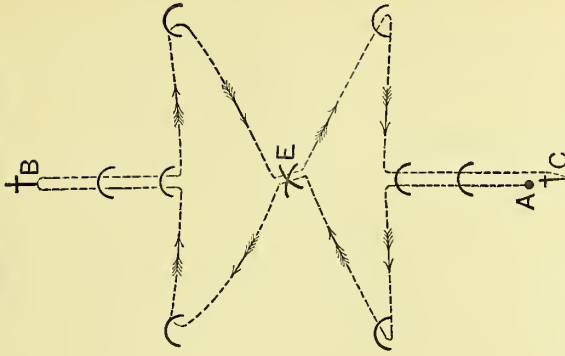


Fig. 616.—String Croquet for Small Lawns.

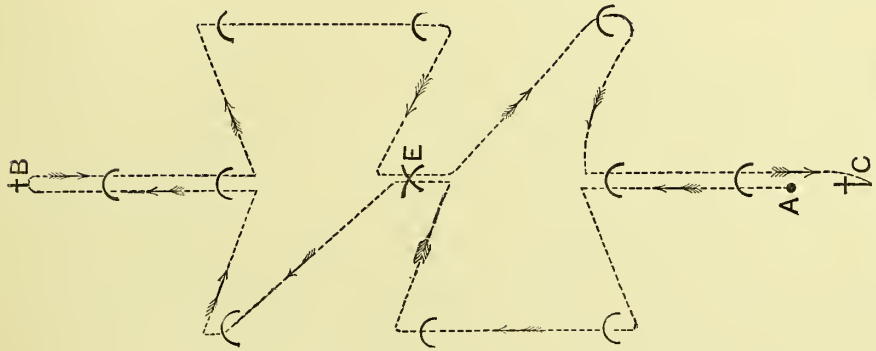
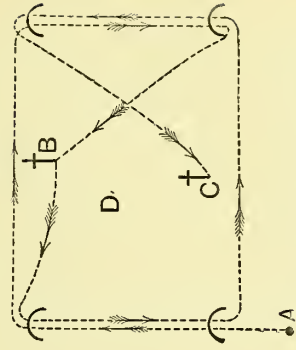


Fig. 614.—Association Croquet
(the 6-loop game).

- A. Starting-point.
- B. Turning peg.
- C. Winning peg.
- D. String ball.
- E. Cage.

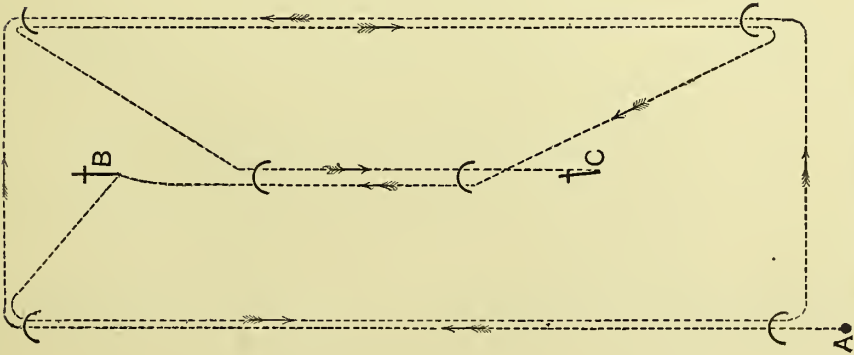


Fig. 613.—Wimbledon Croquet
(10-loop and cage).

placed against the one hit, and is then struck so as to move both balls. A "roll" stroke will send both in the same direction close together, a sharp blow will send the opponent's ball much farther than the player's, and by the splitting stroke the balls can be driven in different directions. Formerly the player might put his foot upon his ball and hold it fast, but now this is not allowed. A turn ceases on the player failing to pass his ball through a hoop or to roquet another ball, on his failing to shake the ball off which he takes croquet, on his killing a ball, or on his making a foul stroke. A ball is killed by being driven off the lawn; it is replaced at right angles to the boundary and three feet from it. This rule revolutionized croquet, making it a game of judgment rather than strength; formerly the opponent's ball might be croqueted to any distance without penalty. A player makes a foul stroke when he strikes another ball as well as his own; hits his own ball twice—as by "following on"; allows any ball when in play (after a roquet a ball is in hand until croquet is taken) to touch any part of his person; lets a ball rebound from a wire, or stick, upon his person; or by striking the wire or peg moves a ball resting against it. The only penalty is that the turn ceases, the balls remaining where they are.

The croquet-lawn for experienced players should be as level as a billiard table; if it is small, skilful players will prefer the variation known as "string" to croquet. In this game a yellow ball spotted in the centre of the lawn must be hit first in each turn, and may be used as the only ball in play after each point.

For garden-party croquet an absolutely level lawn is not indispensable; a good game may be played on lawns having an incline at one end, on small lawns, and on those of irregular shape. If the lawn is surrounded by flower-beds, these may be protected with wire edging, but with careful players this should not be necessary, as driving to the boundary is heavily penalized.

The All England croquet set has the balls painted blue, red, black, and yellow, and they are played in that order, the blue and black against the red and yellow. Ordinary sets are marked with one or more stripes of red or blue, and play in accordance with the numbering.

For a handicap, instead of giving a hoop it is best to give a "bisque", that is, a right to an extra turn, which may be taken at any stage of the game when the player who has this advantage is in play.

Garden croquet sets for eight players cost from two to five guineas; half sets, complete for four players, from one guinea. Best quality balls cost about 8s. the set of four; best all-wood mallets, about 7s. 6d. each; if covered with india-rubber or leather, from 10s. 6d. each.

A special adaptation of the game to small lawns is the game known as "king-ball", which is amusing, and may be played by the same number of persons. Sets cost 50s.; the half-sets (for four players), from 30s. Another game called "doxil", which is also known as "croquet pool", is still more unlike the game as now played.

Fishing.—Angling is probably the cheapest of British field sports. The most expensive form is salmon fishing in the preserved waters of Scotland

and Wales, which may cost upwards of ten guineas a day. In Ireland the fishing is less costly—a fortnight's holiday, with many chances of fair sport, can be had at a cost of £20, including all expenses from London. Trout fishing on such rivers as the Kennet and Itchen is the most expensive variety of English fishing, the membership of the associations preserving these waters being much sought after. Bottom-fishing and spinning or trolling for coarse fish is practically free on navigable rivers such as the Thames, Severn, and Trent. The enthusiastic angler will do well to join some society—there are a thousand in the United Kingdom—preserving its own water; but the sportsman who can spare but a few days each season will find it most economical to take the ordinary daily or weekly licenses, or even fish the water farmed by keepers of anglers' hotels. Many waters are overfished, but it is doubtful if this may be said of the majority. A holiday taken in the angling season at some not easily accessible centre may be passed in fishing waters seldom disturbed by anglers, and where the visitor will obtain permission for the asking, or on payment of a trifling fee. Sea-angling is a form of sport which masters of the art of fishing with the dry fly may despise, but which the ordinary angler finds pleasurable enough. It is, of course, free, and may be practised successfully from a boat at any place on the coast, from piers, jetties, and jutting rocks, from some bridges, and in every tidal estuary.

For salmon, Scotland is, of course, pre-eminent. English anglers who do not care to go so far north, may try the rivers in south-west Wales; or take a license on such streams as the Teify, Dovey, Mawddach, or Dwyrydd. In the Dovey and Mawddach good sport is also to be had with salmon trout. In North Wales, in Galloway, and in many parts of rural England a day's trout fishing can always be had for the asking, but chiefly in streams where the fish are small. Trolling and bottom-fishing in corporation and canal reservoirs, in some parts of rivers like the Trent and Severn, the Avon and its tributaries, and in most lakes and large pools, are free to the public on taking out a daily ticket costing a trifling sum.

The close time for fishing varies: in England and Wales the close time for salmon is from 1st November to 2nd February, in Scotland from 1st November to 10th February, in Ireland, for both salmon and trout, from 1st November to 1st February. For trout, in England and Wales the close time is from 2nd October to 1st February, and there is no close time in Scotland. On many streams there are special regulations, mostly increasing the close time. Sunday fishing is illegal, and in Ireland, Saturday is also a close time for salmon and trout. For fresh-water fish (other than trout, pollan, and char) the close season is from 15th March to 15th June, but certain districts are exempt, and in others, as Norfolk and Suffolk, the close season is from 1st March to 30th June.

No license is needed in Scotland for salmon or trout, but in England and Wales licenses are compulsory for both, and in Ireland for salmon. In Ireland the license for a rod costs £1. In England and Wales it is usually

£1 the season, with a lower price for a short period; in Cumberland, 15s.; in the Cleddy, Taff, Ely, and Rumney, 10s. 6*d.*; in the Coquet, Wear, and Ouse, 5s. The salmon license includes the right to fish for trout. A trout license costs from 1s. each rod in the Conway, Severn, and some other rivers, to 10s. in the Avon, Erme, and Dart. Usually it is 2s. 6*d.*, and in most districts 1s. for a short period.

Most anglers burden themselves with useless impedimenta. The necessities are a rod, with an extra top joint, a couple of lines, and a dozen spare hooks, flies, casts; a winch, a landing-net, and a bag or creel. A serviceable trout rod can be had for 10s. 6*d.*; one as good as any fisherman wants for 21s. A salmon rod costs £3 3s. Split-cane built-up rods are luxuries; a good one about eleven feet long, with two tops, can be had for 42s.; a split-cane eighteen-foot salmon rod, with best fittings, may cost £10. For trolling and bottom fishing, and for sea fishing, wood or whole-cane rods, costing at most 20s., will fulfil every requirement. Winches cost 10s. 6*d.*; Nottingham reels, from 2s. 6*d.*; trolling and spinning lines, 10s. the 100 yards; braided waterproofed trout lines average the same price; salmon lines from 15s. to 21s. Trout casts, nine feet long, cost 5s. the dozen; salmon casts, 2s. each; hooks, 1s. 6*d.* the 100; salmon flies, 6*d.* to 2s. 6*d.* each; trout flies, 2s. the dozen; artificial minnows, 1s. 6*d.* each. Artificial baits of all kinds are now so cheap and good that there is absolutely no excuse for fishing with live bait. Fishing-bags cost about 7s. 6*d.* each; creels, 3s.

Fives.—There are various ways of playing fives; it is not unlike the old game of racquets, and is sometimes played with a bat, but generally with the palm of the hand, a glove being often worn.

In one game the ball is hit up against a smooth wall. In front of this wall a line is drawn on the ground 42 inches from its base and parallel to it; then three other lines parallel to the first, a yard separating each. There are four players, two on each side, who defend the bases, the partners being on the first and third and the second and fourth bases respectively. The player on the first base hits off. In another game there is one line on the wall 38 inches from the ground, and another on the ground 10 feet from the wall. The ball has to hit above the line on the wall so as to rebound, or come at the first hop over the base-line, when it is returned by the opposing player. Other kinds of fives have different courts. In all the games the ball must always strike outside certain limits, and must be struck on the fall or on the first hop, and every miss counts one point to the other side. The score is some multiple of five, usually 15. A fives ball has a core of rubber, and is bound with twine and covered with wash-leather; it is usually two inches in diameter. A ball similar to a lawn-tennis ball is also used. Fives balls cost 2s. 6*d.* to 4s. 6*d.* the dozen. The larger Harrow balls cost 1s. each.

Football.—Rugby football is played by two teams of fifteen players each. The object of the game is to kick the ball between the posts and over the crossbar of the goal defended by the opposite side. In order to accomplish this a player may lift the ball, run with it, if possible, across the

opponents' goal-line, and touch it down. By doing this he gains a try (2 points). One of the successful team has then a free trial to convert this score into a goal (5 points), the ball being carried out into the field of play at right angles to the goal-line and placed in a convenient position for the purpose. A goal may also be won by a "drop-kick" (a player who has the ball in his hands dropping it to the ground and kicking it as it rebounds) and a penalty kick, which may either be a "drop" or a "place". In both these cases, however, it counts less than when won from a try. The boundaries should be 110 yards by 75. The goal-posts, which should be over 11 feet high, should be $18\frac{1}{2}$ feet apart and have a crossbar 10 feet from the ground.

In Association football the teams consist of eleven men each. The players may not touch the ball with their hands, arms, or shoulders, but may stop or impel it with the head or any other part of the body. In this game a player scores one point by driving the ball between the posts of the opposite goal, but under the bar. The field of play should be 120 yards by 80, and the goal-posts should be 8 yards apart, with a crossbar 8 feet from the ground.

Golf.—Golf is played upon long stretches of open rough land, on which a course is marked out, with holes 4 inches in diameter in the centre of level "putting" greens at irregular intervals, the whole ground being termed "links". The object of the game is to drive, by means of specially made clubs, a small gutta-percha ball from one green to the hole in the next until the round of the course has been made. A score is kept of the strokes made, and the record is held by the player doing the round in the fewest strokes. It is usual, however, to score each hole separately, the player who holes his ball with the fewer strokes wins the hole—if two do it in the same number the hole is halved, and the player who has won most holes, not necessarily the one who has the lowest aggregate of strokes to his score, wins the round. In driving from the "teeing-ground", the starting-point for the next hole marked off near each green, the winner of the previous hole plays first, and thereafter the player whose ball is farthest from the object-hole must take the stroke. The game may be played by from one to four persons, but the more usual numbers are two and four. In the foursome game, sides are formed and only two balls are used, the two players of each side taking the stroke in turn. Links may have a 9-hole or an 18-hole course; the narrow course is itself usually clear of obstructions other than those over which the expert player can drive the ball, but to right and left are holes, whins, hedges, sand-pits, water, roads, and other hazards in the shape of bad ground and inferior positions. Links may be improvised on the sea-beach and rough shoreland, or on any grass-farm or moor. In some cases, instead of making holes into which the balls must be driven, it is better to use rings, or the hole-flags with a simple circle drawn round them.

Golf balls cost about 10s. the dozen; wooden clubs from 2s. 6d. to 5s. each; metal clubs from 4s. to 7s. 6d. each. Altogether a golfer's requisites

cost about £5; a complete set is advertised for £4. Near London the club subscription is from £5, 5s. to £10, 10s. annually.

Golf combines, as no other game, outdoor exercise in bracing conditions with a peculiar fascination when played either in company or alone, that one must experience to appreciate fully.

In a modified form golf is played in pleasure-grounds and gardens. The game known as "garden golf" is as good as any; the requisites for playing it cost about 30s. "Croquet golf" is another variety suitable for playing on cricket-grounds, tennis and other lawns.

Hockey.—The ground required for playing hockey is practically the same as for football. It must be 100 by 50 yards; the goal-posts should be 12 feet apart, and the horizontal bar 7 feet above the ground. The goal line is 15 yards in front of the goal, parallel to it, and of equal length. Each end is continued to the base-line by quarter circles. To score a goal a ball, which is the ordinary cricket-ball painted white, must be driven between the posts and under the bar; and at the time the ball is struck one of the side defending the goal must be within the striking circle. Hockey is played by teams of eleven. It is increasing in popularity, especially at girls' schools and colleges. It is played with a hooked stick without any metal fittings. The stick must be able to pass through a ring two inches in diameter. In striking it must not be raised higher than the shoulder.

Hunting.—The ordinary hire of a hunter for a day in the shires is three guineas; in the less fashionable districts a useful enough hack may be had for a guinea. Fox-hunting commences on 1st November and ends on 31st March. Cub-hunting usually begins when the corn has been cut, and is continued until the season proper commences.

Ice Games.—Skating, sliding, and sleighing call for no comment. Sailing on skates is the most exciting amusement for the solitary skater. A square of canvas is spread by means of two light canes, crossed and held at the back, and this sail is manœuvred by altering the position of the arms. Ice-hockey is much played in the fen district; the field, when space allows, is 200 by 50 yards and the goals 15 by 6½ feet. The ordinary rules apply, with such modifications as are necessary.

Curling is bowls on the ice. The rink is 44 yards long by 10 feet wide. A mark, or tee, is made at each end, and round this seven rings are drawn at distances of 12 inches from one another. The game is played with heavy stones, into the top of which a handle is fixed. The player stands at the end of the rink, behind the tee, and sends the stone skimming over the tee at one end of the rink along the ice, his object being to get it as near as he can to the tee at the other end. There is considerable scope for finesse, in blocking or removing the stones of opponents. The player's partners are allowed to sweep the ice of the rink clear of snow from the "hog" score—one-sixth the length of the rink—until level with the tee; his opponents may sweep the ice from the tee to the end of the rink, so that the stone, if travelling, may not meet with any obstacle which may bring it to rest where it will score against them.

Lacrosse.—Lacrosse is played on a larger ground than either hockey or football, but the arrangement is similar. The goals must be not less than 100 or more than 150 yards apart; the posts must be 6 feet apart and 6 feet high, with a net into which the ball is thrown from the “crosse”, a kind of racket, after which the game is called. Twelve players constitute a team. The game resembles football. Its charm lies in the dexterity which can be attained in throwing and catching the ball from all positions. Lacrosse is a modification of the old ball play of the North American Indians, and is now the national game of Canada.

Lawn Tennis.—Lawn tennis requires a level lawn or made court, of the dimensions given in the plans, besides a margin of at least 6 feet beyond the lines. The net, which stretches right across the middle of the court, should be 3 feet high at the centre. Efficient markers at from 10s. each are sold for marking the court-lines, which should not be less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch broad. The game is usually played by four persons, two on each side. The server, while standing on or beyond the base-line on the right, strikes the ball diagonally over the net into the right-hand service court. The striker-out must take the ball if it falls within the court or upon the lines marking it, and return it to the opposite side of the net; the server or his partner then hits the ball back again; and so on alternately until one side or the other fails to return the ball or drives it beyond the courts, when the first point is lost to that side. A served ball must be taken on the first rebound; a returned ball may be volleyed back (*i.e.* struck before touching the ground) after it has passed the net, or on the first rebound after falling in any of the courts. After the first point the server crosses to the left of the base-line and serves into the left service court over the net, continuing afterwards to serve alternately from the right and left courts. When there are four players only the partners on the side which is serving thus change courts. It is a “fault” if the service is delivered from the wrong court, or into the wrong court, or out of court; it is not a “fault” if the server’s foot, which is beyond the base-line, does not touch the ground at the moment at which the service is delivered. It is a “let” if the ball touches the net, but is otherwise a good service. A “let” does not affect the score. If, however, the ball touches and passes over the net in any other but a service stroke, it must be accepted. After a “fault” or “let” the server plays again; after two “faults” his opponent scores the point. In single-handed games the server in one game becomes the striker-out in the next, and so alternately until the set is concluded. In the four-handed game the pair having the right to serve decide which partner shall do so, and the opposing pair decide similarly as to the second game. The other two players serve in the third and fourth games, and this order is maintained throughout. No player may receive or return a service delivered to a partner, and the order of service and of striking-out must not be altered. During a set the strikers-out may not change courts to receive service, nor may the sides change ends.

The ball can never be taken on the second rebound, nor may it touch

any of the players, nor be struck twice with the racket nor by both partners in making one return.

The first point won by a side scores 15; the next makes the score 30; the third 40; the fourth 50 or game. If both sides are at 40 the score is called "deuce"; the next stroke won by either side is called "advantage" for that side; if the side which has scored "advantage" wins the next stroke, it wins the game; if the other side, then the score is "deuce" again; and so on, until a side which is at "advantage" wins the following stroke. Or it may be agreed that whichever side wins the stroke after the first "advantage" has been scored wins the game. The side which first wins six games wins the set, except if both have won five, when the

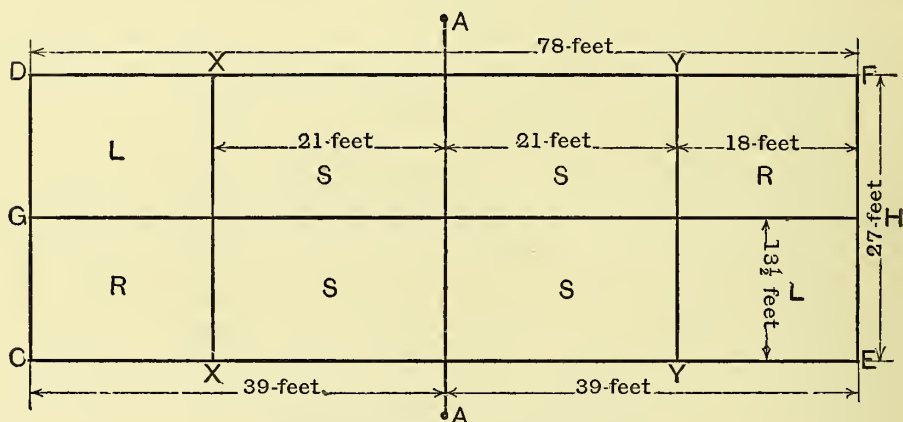


Fig. 617.—Plan of Single-handed Tennis Court.

AA, Net. CD, EF, Base lines. XX, YY, Service lines. R, Right. L, Left.

score is called "games all", and the next game is an "advantage" game; if the side winning it wins also the following game, the set is ended in its favour; if it loses, the score goes back to "deuce" or "games all". More generally, however, the strictly correct rules are departed from, and it is agreed that the side which first wins six games wins the set.

Requisites.—The best rackets cost a guinea each, but very serviceable ones with cane handles and cane wedge may be bought at half that price. The weight of a lady's racket is from 11 to 15 ounces; a gentleman's racket is more often over 16 ounces than under. Light rackets should be bound with gut at the shoulder. Posts, with special base-fittings and ratchets, or similar gear, to tighten the net, are now generally used; they cost from 15s. to 42s. The 42-foot net, for the double court, costs 12s. 6d. in the best quality, which is steam-tarred and has a canvas top-band and copper-wire rope. The ordinary cotton nets cost from 5s. each. The balls, which should be not less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, and weigh from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 ounces each, are of india-rubber, cloth covered, and cost, in best quality, about 1s. each. Match balls cost 15s. the dozen; practice balls, regulation pattern, from 6s. to 8s. 6d. the dozen.

Rackets are best kept in special presses made for one to four rackets;

they must not be put away wet, and should be kept in a dry cool place. Balls should be kept in a net, and cleaned with pipe-clay.

Lawn tennis not only wears the lawn severely, but is disastrous to flower-beds and ornamental shrubs unless the ground is fenced in with wire netting, which is unsightly. Some protection is afforded by using removable tanned stop-netting. Experience has proved that this is most efficacious when not stretched too tight; the net when hung so that the bottom edge lies on the ground, will prevent more balls from escaping than if hung a foot higher, but barely reaching the ground.

Quoits.—Quoits is the best outdoor game where little space is available.

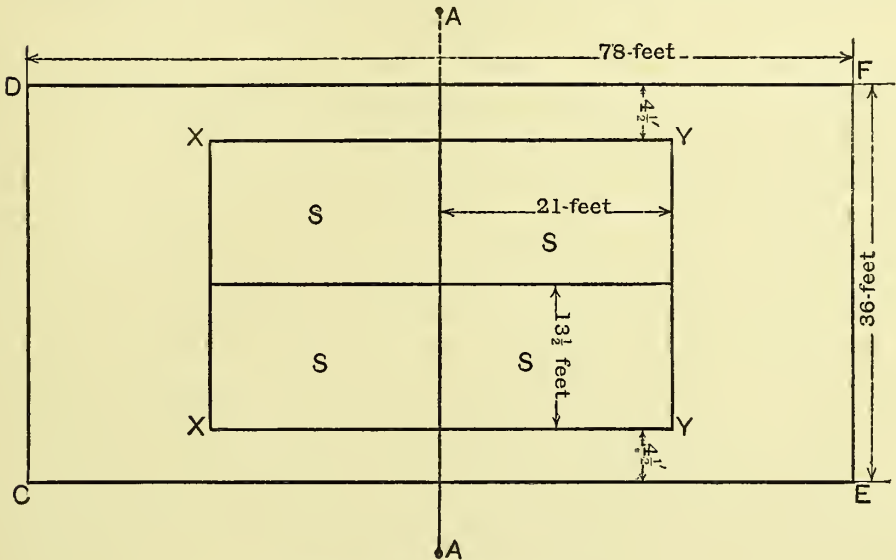


Fig. 618.—Plan of full-size Tennis Court.

AA, Net. CD, EF, Base lines. XX, YY, Service lines. R, Right. L, Left.

It requires a special ground at least 20 yards in length. Pins are driven into the ground, one at each end, and are surrounded by soft clay, so that the quoit may stick into the surface wherever it falls. The quoits are steel rings, which weigh from 3 to 8 lbs. the pair—the regulation quoit, weighing $7\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. the pair, costs about 8s. 6d., or a guinea the set of four, with two pins. The pins project about one inch only above the surface of the clay, and are split to hold a slip of paper which serves as a mark. The distance from pin to pin should be 19 yards. The player stands level with one pin and pitches his quoit with his first step, his object being to ring the other pin, or at least fix his quoit in the clay as near as possible to it. The winner at each end takes the next first throw. A ringer counts two points. No quoit counts that is not delivered into the clay, or that has rolled, or that is on its back (unless it is knocked over by another, or is holding fast into the clay). If opponents throw ringers in the same round no points are scored; if neither throws a ringer, the quoit that is nearest

the pin counts one point, and the next quoit, if belonging to the same player, counts a second point. If there are teams of players, one side counts a point for each quoit nearer to the pin than any of their opponents' quoits. All dead quoits should be removed before the next player throws.

Quoits for use on board ship, and in yards and rooms, are made of rope, and may be loaded up to the usual weight. They are pitched into a small bucket; or the proper game can be played in any yard or on any lawn, with a stand and pin or pins.

Ring-Goal.—Ring-goal is a game for two players; it can be played on any tennis lawn. The goals should be 78 feet apart, 10 feet wide, and 8 feet high. They are usually backed with netting. A crease-line is drawn parallel with the goal, 6 feet before it. The players stand in front of the goals; each has two sticks, 36 inches long, and with these they throw the ring, which is made of split cane covered with leather, and weighs about $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. A throw is made in the following manner:—The stick in the left hand is held rigid at about right angles to the body, with the ring on it, to which in throwing it gives the required direction. The stick in the right hand is put through the ring, and moved outwards from the body, giving the ring its impetus. The ring must be caught by the defender on one or both his sticks, and be returned by him as speedily as possible. Each time the ring is thrown through the goal-posts into the net one point is scored to the thrower; if it is thrown wide, or touches the ground before it reaches the opposite crease, the defender counts. A game is eleven points. The server must have one foot on the crease-line when serving. The requisites for ring-goal cost from 21s. the set.

The forerunner of ring-goal was the game known as "lagrace", in which light hoops were thrown from player to player, the object, as in battledore and shuttlecock, being to keep the projectile up as long as possible. As the game is now played, the object of the players, as in ring-goal, is to throw only difficult shots.

Rounders.—Rounders is a universal pastime. Any number can play, and there are two sides. Four or more bases are marked at equal distances from each other on an imaginary circle. The side "in" stand behind the home base; the other side have a pitcher in the centre of the circle, a stopper behind the home base, and fielders outside or within the circle. The pitcher throws a soft ball—lawn-tennis balls are best—at the player whose turn it is to defend the home base. The player strikes it with a bat, or oftener with the open hand, and at once runs to the first base, while any other previous striker who may be stationed at that base advances to the second. A player may run on from point to point if possible, so long as he does not pass any of his own side, but as soon as the ball is dead, *i.e.* reaches the pitcher's hands, he must remain at the nearest base until the next striker runs. Usually the batsman is allowed two misses, but at the third throw must run whether he hit the ball or not. The striker may be caught out by any of the opposite side, and he or any of the others on his side may be run out if hit with the ball while running between

the bases. When the players are few, a "rounder"—that is, a run completely round the circle, starting from the home base—gets a player who is "out" reinstated; in other games the rounder simply adds one to the score. As the game is played sometimes, a "catch" from the bat puts out the whole side. The team which scores the larger number of rounders in an innings wins the game. Rounders may be played on the ice by skaters.

Shooting.—Shooting is not so expensive as many think. If the sportsman is prepared to rough it and work hard for a small bag of mixed game, he may get such a shooting as he needs from a tenant farmer, who will sell the sporting rights at from threepence to three shillings the acre. Sixpence is a fair average price if there is no woodland or warren. Two guns may have twenty days' fair sport in the season from a farm of 1000 acres. "Free shooting" of a very rough kind is obtainable on the salt marshes round the coast, on the fore-shore, and on estuaries generally. An invitation to pheasant-shooting at hand-reared birds is not to be lightly accepted; the expenses to each guest are seldom less than £10. A day's partridge-shooting or rabbiting on a small shoot is far less expensive; in the first case 10s. in tips is ample, in the second 5s. is more than enough. A gun may be purchased new for £10 if with hammers, and for £15 if hammerless; either will last the occasional sportsman his lifetime. The purchase of second-hand guns cannot be recommended. A gun may be hired from any respectable gunmaker. For the occasional shooter, the ordinary sack jacket and lounge suit, with tanned canvas or leather leggings and a tweed cap, will be sufficient.

For wild-fowl and protected wild-birds generally, the shooting season is from 1st August to 31st March. Grouse shooting begins on 12th August and ends on 10th December. Black game may be shot from 20th August to 10th December, partridges from 1st September to 1st February, pheasants from 1st October to 1st February, rooks usually from 20th April to 15th May. There is no close time for deer (except in Ireland), hares, or rabbits. It is unlawful to kill game or hares on Sunday.

Licenses are as follows:—To use or carry firearms, 10s. a year. Game Licenses, from 1st August to 31st July, £3; to expire 31st October, £2; if taken out after 31st October to expire 31st July, £2; for a continuous period of 14 days at any season, and dating from date of issue, £1.

The Care of Tackle for Sports and Games.—In country houses of the old-fashioned sort there are numerous cupboards and places where oddments may be kept in good condition. A summer-house is not a good place; high shelves in a dry passage are best. In the new suburban houses without basements there is a cupboard under the stairs, a part of which can be utilized for hanging tennis-rackets, golf-clubs, skates, and for stowing away poles and nets during the winter. Leather strips with straps, or twine-ties, can be purchased which, fixed to walls, will hold securely such things as fishing-rods, golf-clubs, whips, and like articles, which keep their shape best when suspended, their own weight helping to prevent warping. Tennis-balls should be kept in a string net hung clear.

Guns should be placed in their cases or in full-length covers. A strip of thin wood screwed to the edge of a shelf makes the best rack for bowls, croquet-balls, and the like.

To season a cricket-bat, oil the blade with raw linseed-oil, and when this has been well rubbed in, set the bat upright to prevent the oil from getting to the handle. Repeat daily for a month. To clean bats, oil well with raw linseed-oil; after 20 minutes rub off and scour with No. 00 glass-paper, then apply another coat of oil and rub off lightly with a dry cloth. Bats should be kept out of the sun; in storing them they should be hung by the handle. A new bat should be used with care, and the player should practise with it at old balls.

Croquet-balls, mallets, bowls, etc., may be dressed with raw linseed-oil when damp has destroyed the polish. After oiling, dust with fine tripoli powder, and rub with buff leather.

The strings of rackets may be preserved by applying a very little almond-oil before putting them into the press for the winter.

Rust may be removed from all metal (skates and quoits, for instance) by applying boiling water, which not only removes the rust but kills it. Wipe dry while the metal is still hot, and apply vaseline.

CHOICE OF A CAREER.

I. OCCUPATIONS FOR MEN.

An attempt will be made in this article to indicate the chief occupations open to men, and the means of entry thereto; but it will be impossible, within the space available, to treat in detail concerning the occupations of artisans and other manual workers.

In order to fit boys for life's battle a good education is necessary. A school education, of course, is not everything; many of the most successful men have done well without it. A good early education, however, gives a boy a long start on the road to success, and the habits of work formed, and breadth of mind acquired, exercise the most beneficial influence in later life. If a boy can be kept at school till seventeen or more, so much the better. The minds of many boys do not seem to assimilate knowledge easily till the "teens" are reached. But whether they leave at fourteen or seventeen, it is a great mistake to let them drop all studies and give up all their spare time to amusements. After the general education is over, the special should begin. This should comprise daily work, together with evening instruction based on some aspect of that work, such as can be acquired in classes or in private study. In general, boys go into life at three periods—say fourteen or fifteen, seventeen or eighteen, twenty-two or twenty-three (after a university course). It is quite possible for those who leave first to equal or even surpass those who leave last, if they use properly their opportunities of acquiring knowledge. Owing to early habits of work they may, in many respects, be better trained than those who start under happier auspices.

Nothing is more foolish than to imagine that education is an affair of books alone, or of school or university alone. Such education requires to be supplemented by varied experience and by private study. In fact, education should end only with life. Elementary education is now free to all, and by means of scholarships it is possible for a clever Board-School boy to become Senior Wrangler or Senior Optime.

The question of the choice of a career should be kept before a youth, but not pressed forward too prominently. Apparently the choice is limitless, but in practice it is much circumscribed by home influence and surroundings, and by education, health, and financial considerations. A boy should be allowed to follow his bent, provided he is not obviously unfit to make a choice. The various openings should, so far as possible, be indicated, and suggestions made, but parents should not decide for their son.

The interdependence of the various branches of knowledge is now so close that men who started as working carpenters have, by means of thorough study of the principles of science, become lecturers or architects of repute, while stone-masons have become sculptors and members of the Royal Academy. Snobbery and caste feeling have ruined many lives. To force a musical boy to become a barrister is to spoil a good organist or a great composer; to force an artist to become an engineer is probably to injure both the boy and the world.

Information as to the regulations of institutions for study can be obtained on application to the secretaries. The fees at universities for degrees and tuition vary very much, and the same may be said of those at training institutions of all sorts. A minimum sum for board and lodging in London would be £60 per annum, in the country £50. To this amount about £10 for books, &c., must be added, and probably as much for minor personal expenses. The fees for examinations and tuition would be spread over several years. The secretaries of institutions can usually recommend suitable places for residence.

Anyone who contemplates emigration should apply to the Colonial Office in London, or to the agent-general in London of the colony to which he desires to go. He should also buy the pamphlets issued by the Emigrants' Information Office, 31 Broadway, London, at a price of a few pence.

Accountant.—The working of businesses on a large scale, especially with a number of branches, and the growth of limited liability companies, have led to a great demand for trained accountants. Two professional bodies in London hold examinations, viz. the Institute of Chartered Accountants, and the Society of Accountants and Auditors, also certain Scotch bodies. No fees are required in England from practising accountants, but in Scotland fees ranging from £3 to £9 have to be paid to the accountants' societies. In England anyone can act as an accountant without membership of any society, but it is better to enter the profession as an articled pupil on payment of a premium, say from £70 to £150. To become a member of the Institute a five years' term must be served under a chartered accountant. Any accountant's clerk can, however, become a member of the society. Both societies hold examinations in law, book-keeping, and other commercial subjects. The rate of pay for assistants varies from £70 to £300, or much more for accountants to public bodies or companies. The duties of an accountant give him a knowledge of many trades and business methods. He is especially concerned with the manipulation of figures and the preparation of balance-sheets. There is a great demand for accountants of good character, and such men make incomes, in private practice, often largely in excess of above figures.

Actors.—No one ought to enter the theatrical profession unless he is determined to work hard and to study. Preliminary experience can be obtained in amateur theatricals, local dramatic societies, &c. Aspirants should study in some elocution class or take private lessons in elocution. Advertisements in good professional papers, such as the *Era* or the *Stage*,

will show students where tuition can be obtained, or what openings are available. Study of all sorts of minor "stage-business" is necessary for a proper appearance "on the boards". The pay of a "super", or of a "general utility" man, is from 20s. to 30s. a week. A fair average actor receives from £3 to £5 per week. Successful actors earn from £10 to £60 per week. Payment is not by the year but by the run of the piece, in the absence of special arrangement. In plays in modern costume actors find their own clothes. In "starring" companies travelling expenses are usually paid.

Actuaries.—Anyone interested in mathematics, and in their practical application to commercial life, would have good prospects as an actuary, or adviser of insurance companies, &c., as to safe-risks, premiums, &c. The examinations of the Institute of Actuaries, England, or the Faculty of Actuaries, Scotland, must be passed; the fees are a few guineas, but the examinations in pure mathematics are very searching. Clerks in insurance offices, with a taste for such work, and knowledge of the practical application, occasionally pass the examination. The income of an actuary ranges from £600 to £2000.

Agriculture, &c.—*Farmers* require agricultural education, which can be obtained at a number of colleges scattered over the British Isles. A full list can be obtained on application to the Board of Agriculture in London or at Dublin. In these institutions regular training in all agricultural matters can be obtained for short or long periods. This training should then be supplemented by actual work upon a farm. For such work a premium is generally required, varying according to style of living from £30 to £50 on small farms, and from £100 to £300 on larger ones. The capital needed varies in Britain from £6 to £12 per acre; in Ireland from £2 per acre; in the former country tenant-farmers are usually found, in the latter country small owners. At present tillage-land is cheapest, dairy-farms are more expensive, and grazing-farms are largest and require most capital. Proximity to a town affects rents and profits. There are now many farmer-specialists who confine their attention to one branch—dairy-farming, horse-breeding, grazing, poultry-farming, fruit-culture, or hop-growing. The "small articles" of a farm obtain a ready sale, such as pigs, poultry, and fruit. Too little attention is paid in the British Isles to petite culture, consequently much food is imported into England from the Continent which might as well be grown at home. The Agricultural Departments in England and Ireland have been formed in order to assist farmers with advice and information, and enquiries are answered in much detail.

Horticulturists can obtain special training in the agricultural colleges, and with capital can open a shop in a town; or they can sell their products in the market to some regular buyer. Many *Gardeners* have, with intelligence and a little capital, risen to become their own masters. *Land Agents* can be trained at an agricultural college, or should pass the examinations of the Surveyors' Institution, London. They find work on large properties as

managers, and may combine farming with such employment. *Bailiffs* are usually, but not always, selected from intelligent labourers. *Land Surveyors and Valuers*, and *Auctioneers and Appraisers*, are to be found in all rural districts; they usually enter as clerks with or without a premium; in the latter case apprenticeship articles are generally entered into. A country worker of this type usually holds also an auctioneer's license, and if he is a smart business man he has wide chances of successful work in house and estate agency business. The premium ranges from 30 guineas upwards, with or without salary. Payment is made by fees on a more or less fixed scale, but special arrangements can be entered into. A useful examination to pass for such an occupation is that of the Surveyors' Institution. *Teachers* are employed in the classes now being opened for technical instruction in agriculture. They should have had a scientific training and some practical experience. Posts are open to them in connection with creameries and cheese factories and other similar places; the best become specialists as chemists or analysts. *Brewers* are now becoming increasingly scientific. To begin in such a business a huge capital is usually required. Pupils can enter a brewery on paying a premium, say from £200 upwards, or can study in some technical institute or under a chemist. Excellently-paid posts are then obtainable in some established breweries. *Millers*—Small country mills are tending to disappear, but where they are left a boy can usually enter as a clerk, or on payment of a premium. He can then take a situation in some of the large mills now established in the ports where foreign corn is ground, and rise to superintending posts, or start business for himself.

Analysts.—The increasing use of chemical knowledge in all industries is gradually leading to the recognition of analytical chemistry as a separate occupation. The necessary training can be obtained either by paying a premium to a chemist and working in his laboratory, or by study at a technical institution. The fee for three years' apprenticeship would be about £100; the cost of education at a technical college would in many cases be less, but the best course, viz. that at the Royal College of Science, London, costs about £120. There are suitable technical colleges now in all great towns, and study in these is undoubtedly the best. A student can, after his course, go into private laboratories as a paid assistant at from £80 to £150 per annum, and higher posts at from £300 to £500. Successful analysts in private practice make much larger incomes, and teaching work may be undertaken if it be desired to supplement the income. Trained chemists are now employed in most large manufactories, and in mines, assay offices, &c.

Architects.—The profession can be entered from the purely artistic side, as after a course in the Royal Academy schools (London), or from the practical and commercial side, as when builders and surveyors style themselves architects. In either case a period of study at some recognized school of art is essential, combined with work as a pupil in the office of some architect, or builder and surveyor. The examinations of the Royal

Institute of British Architects should be taken if possible; full particulars and the names of members can be obtained from the offices in London. The premium ranges from £30 to £300, and the study period should cover at least five years. The pay of a draughtsman ranges from 20s. to £1, 10s.; of an assistant from £3 to £5 per week. An architect is paid by a commission on the value of the works in course of erection under his supervision. He may also make an income as a valuer. A number of appointments under local governing bodies and under Government are open to architects. The pay under the former varies from £200 to £1000 per annum. The range of the Government posts (Office of Works) is similar. Information can be obtained from the Civil Service Commission, London.

Army.—The usual mode of entry into the commissioned ranks of the army is by open competition. Success entitles the cadet to admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, if he is training for cavalry or infantry, or to the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, for Royal Engineers or Royal Artillery. Certain commissions are, however, competed for amongst university graduates, and others amongst militia officers.

The compulsory subjects of examination are Mathematics, Latin, French and German, English, Geography, and Drawing: two optional subjects may also be selected from a long list. The competition is keen, but no well-trained youth need fear to enter. The limits of age are sixteen to eighteen for Woolwich, and seventeen to nineteen for Sandhurst. The examinations are held twice a year, and all applications concerning them must be addressed to the Civil Service Commissioners, Victoria Street, London. There is a standard height and chest measurement, and the medical examination is very strict. Certain relaxations in the examination regulations are permitted for Queen's Cadets, &c., nominated by the War Office from the sons of officers who are killed in action, or who have died of wounds, and have left their families in financial straits. The total cost of education at either institution is at least £200. The charges made vary in amount accordingly as the student is the son of a private gentleman or of an officer. A Queen's Cadet pays nothing. Cadets receive pay, which, however, is credited as a set-off against their messing and other expenses. Instruction is given in strictly military subjects and in others bearing upon them. Cadets select their branch of the service in accordance with their place on the competitive list. Scientific students usually choose the Engineers or the Artillery. Of the others, those who can afford the expense choose the Cavalry. The corps which has most opportunity of foreign service, either military or civil, in peace or war, is the Engineers. Further military education can be obtained, after entry into the army, in the Staff College.

It is only in the Artillery and Engineers that officers can live on their pay, and it is difficult for junior officers to do so even in those corps. An officer must have some private means, if only £50 per annum. It may be said, indeed, that the minimum private income should be from £100 to £200 in the dismounted services, and £300 in the mounted. The Government makes some contribution to mess expenses, but this is never sufficient;

and, of course, there are many minor expenses incidental to an officer's social duties. The cost of uniform is also a considerable item of expense. In the Cavalry a minimum of £300 is required; in Highland regiments about £120; in the scientific corps from £80 to £100; in the Infantry about £70. An officer has to contribute to the maintenance of the band. He has to find his own horses, but the Government provide keep for a certain number. He enjoys free quarters, and a soldier servant is appointed for his use. Travelling expenses are paid by the Government.

An officer's pay varies with his rank and the branch in which he serves. In the Infantry, a second lieutenant gets 5s. 3d. per day. This amount is increased in other corps, and rises to 9s. 7d. in the Engineers. A captain's pay similarly varies from 11s. 7d. to 19s. 7d. per day. The highest-paid colonels are in the Engineers, with about £700 per annum. A general receives about £3000 per annum. On active service and in India extra allowances are given. An officer rises to captain's rank in peace time in from eight to ten years after entry.

Officers in educational appointments, and in the Army Service, Ordnance Store, Pay, and Medical Staff Corps, are better paid than those in the fighting line. They can live on their pay; they are usually transferred to these corps after a certain period of service in the fighting line.

Army Doctors must obtain a post in open competition. They must be qualified in medicine and surgery; and be between the ages twenty-one and twenty-eight. The fee for the competition is £1. Information as to examinations can be obtained from the Civil Service Commission. A lieutenant starts with £200 per annum, and may become director-general with £1500.

Army Veterinary Surgeons enter by competition, and must be between twenty-one and twenty-seven, and graduates of the Veterinary College, London. They receive £250 per annum on appointment, and rise to £850.

Army Chaplains are appointed by the War Office after selection. The age limits are twenty-seven and thirty-five. They must have served for three years as priests. The pay ranges from £180 to £365 per annum.

All officers receive a pension on retirement ranging from £120 to £1000 per annum, and obtainable after fifteen years' service; or they can compound for a gratuity, ranging from £1200 upwards.

Indian Army Officers.—The Indian Staff Corps affords brilliant opportunities of pay and promotion for those willing to live in India, to learn a native language, and to command native troops. An officer must decide before entering Sandhurst; on leaving, he will be attached to a British regiment in India, from which he is transferred to his Indian regiment. He can easily live on his pay, as he starts at £300 per annum in the Infantry: in fact he receives about three times as much as an officer in the British Army. His pension is high, and his family are pensioned also.

Non-commissioned Officers.—These are promoted from the ranks; they are better off and enjoy better prospects than the average clerk. In the warrant ranks the pay is from 5s. to 8s. per day; in the commissioned ranks, as quarter-master, &c., from 9s. to 16s. 6d. per day.

Appointments abroad can often be obtained with good pay. Full information will be found in a pamphlet supplied gratis at any Post Office.

Army Schoolmasters must be between twenty and twenty-four years of age. They receive from 6s. 6d. to 7s. per day, exclusive of living and other expenses.

Police appointments in the higher and lower ranks are often given to soldiers. A chief constable receives from £600 to £1000 per annum; the other ranks from £1 to £3 per week. Competitive examinations are held for the *Royal Irish Constabulary*—pay from £125 to £450 per annum. The *Indian Police Force* offers almost as good a scope as the Indian army. All particulars can be obtained from the Civil Service Commissioners. Colonial police forces are filled locally or by the Colonial Office, London.

Artists.—Before anyone adopts art as his profession a marked predilection should be shown. Training can be procured in art classes or art schools, of which there are now a great number. In these, instruction can be obtained for a few shillings per term in evening classes, or for a few guineas for day tuition.

The best students are attracted to the Royal Academy Schools, Burlington House, London, or to the Royal College of Art, South Kensington. The fullest information is contained in the prospectuses issued by those institutions. The advantages offered in free tuition, scholarships, &c., are very great, but many artists think that the training is not so free and wide as is desirable. It tends to stereotype the methods, and at South Kensington too much attention is alleged to be paid to the purely decorative and commercial side of art—not a bad thing, however, if a person has to earn a living by his pencil. In “South Kensington” classes, whether local or otherwise, the idea is to train art teachers and designers for manufacturing purposes. In the Academy schools, painting, engraving, sculpture, and architecture, in their highest branches, are all taught. To do really good work as an artist it is probably necessary to study abroad—in Paris, Antwerp, Florence, or some similar centre.

In Antwerp instruction is gratuitous, and the cost of living need not exceed £1 per week. In all these cities suitable board and lodging can be obtained *en pension*, and a minimum of £70 per annum ought to cover all charges. Herkomer’s Art School at Bushey Heath, Herts, is the nearest reproduction in this country of the art life of continental schools. An artist, like a literary man, must never be tired of producing and submitting his work. He must get known, either by exhibitions or by illustration work. He should not specialize too much, at first at any rate. He will thus be prevented from becoming “groovy”. Picture-selling is

certainly not the most paying business for an unknown artist. He should get known by illustrations in the picture-papers, comic or otherwise, or by illustrating the letterpress of books. Pen-work, or wash-work, is constantly being required by the magazines or newspapers. Every artist should know something of photography. Paintings, whether in oils or in water-colours, vary greatly in price. A good average amount for a man beginning to be known would be from £5 to £20 for a picture. Well-known artists obtain prices ranging from £50 to £1000. Small sketches for illustrations fetch from 5s. to £1 each, larger ones from £2 or £3 to £10 or more. Many beginners take pupils, or posts as art-masters. Anyone with literary talent can, like Thackeray, combine authorship and work with the brush. A studio is usually necessary: it can often be shared with artist friends.

Sculptors must have been trained as already stated, and the general remarks as to artists equally apply to them.

Designers form a link between the purely artistic and purely commercial worlds. In this branch, and in *illustrating*, the work is probably more remunerative and continuous than in any other artistic employment. The demand for new designs and new illustrations is insatiable and increasing. Originality and beauty are the great features of successful designs for all sorts of manufactures, from oil-cloth to silk scarves. After a preliminary art course it is well to serve as a pupil to some artist in this branch; a premium has to be paid. Incomes from £100 to £1000 per annum can be made at such work.

Engraving, etching, and lithography are still important callings, although the new photo-processes are, to a great extent, superseding these branches of art. They can be studied in technical classes, particularly in the Guild and Technical School, Bolt Court, London; or by apprenticeship.

Photography is rapidly becoming a recognized branch of art, and can be learnt by apprenticeship or in technical classes. The capital required to set up a photographic studio is not large. There are several minor employés in photographic work, earning from 25s. to £3 per week.

Wood-carving or ivory-turning, particularly if really artistic, always commands fair prices; so also does tasteful and finished *bookbinding*. *Drawing plans, plan-tracing, glass-painting, china-painting, Christmas-card preparation, painting on satin, fans, leather, &c.*, are a few of the many minor artistic occupations which will afford a living, or act as a crutch.

Auctioneers.—The business of the auctioneer can be learnt in two ways: either by paying a premium to some well-established auctioneer, or by entering his employment as a clerk, and gradually acquiring the necessary knowledge. A premium varies from £50 to £100, more or less, for three years' articles: a small salary is usually paid to the learner. During this period he should prepare himself for the examinations of the Auctioneers' Institute, Chancery Lane, London, which include law and technical subjects. Before practising as an auctioneer a Government license of £10

must be taken out. If it be simply desired to act as a valuer, the fee is £2, or as a house agent £2, but the auctioneer's fee includes both of these. An auctioneer can enter into business as an assistant to some other firm, or can start for himself. The capital required is small. Rent and living expenses for a few years would suffice. Of course some connection is essential, unless one is bought. A beginner should select a rising neighbourhood, of which there are so many near large towns. An auctioneer of repute can earn money as a rent-collector, valuer, and arbitrator (see also under "Agriculture" for *Land Agent*, &c.).

Builders.—The general training already described under "Artists" and "Architects" applies to Builders. They require more practical knowledge, particularly on the business side. Many jobbing builders are merely workmen who have a little capital and do odd work as offered to them, and employ a few labourers. Other builders with capital have large works and numbers of employes. The theory in general is that the builder works under the supervision of the architect, who represents the client's interests. He is, in fact, the latter's professional watch-dog. In small works one man does the whole of the designing and supervising work. For anyone who learns the trade as an apprentice, and has artistic and business qualities, there are many openings. A number of Government posts are open to those who have practical building experience. Application should be made to the Civil Service Commissioners.

Civil Service (Home).—The term Civil Servant comprises a very large number of workers in Government employment, especially clerks, revenue officers, technical workers, and workers of the artisan class. Civil Service employment offers many attractions, such as certainty, non-requirement of capital, short hours, fairly light work. The disadvantages are monotony and routine, and few chances of bettering position except in the usual course of promotion. The hours of clerks are usually seven, of other officers eight. The Saturday half-holiday is usually allowed. The amount of annual leave ranges from fourteen days to one month; higher officials get six weeks or even more. In cases of sickness, leave of absence on full pay is allowed up to a period of six months, and on half-pay for another six months. All Civil Servants are entitled to pensions at the rate of $\frac{1}{60}$ th for every year of service. After forty years' service the maximum pension of $\frac{4}{9}$ ths = $\frac{2}{3}$ of the current rate of pay can be obtained. Almost all Civil Service appointments are filled by open competitive examinations conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners, Victoria Street, London, S.W., from whom information as to regulations can be obtained. Particulars of forthcoming examinations are advertised in the *London Gazette* and the principal daily papers, usually on a Thursday. The best way, however, to find out easily what examinations are coming on, is to subscribe to the paper published weekly by some Civil Service "coach", such as the *Civil Service Candidate*, the organ of the Civil Service Department of King's College, London. All candidates must be natural-born British subjects, and must be within the prescribed limits of age. Those in the Government

Service are, however, allowed certain deductions in this respect. The health and character of each candidate must be sound, and strict enquiry is made into each before appointment. Full information as to possible health disqualifications can be obtained from the Civil Service Commissioners. Specimen examination papers can also be obtained from the Government printers. In many examinations the standard is very high, though the subjects are apparently simple. A brief summary of information as to the chief employments follows:—

Clerkships, First Division.—Subjects similar to those for a university degree; university education almost essential; about a dozen appointments every year; particulars of pay and prospects published before each examination; pay at start varies from £100 to £200 according to department, advances by increments of £15 or more to £500, and thence to £1000 or £1500; age limits, twenty-two to twenty-four; fee, £6.

Second Division Clerks.—Appointments, principally in the offices in London; subjects, ordinary English, languages, mathematics, book-keeping or shorthand; a hundred or so appointments every year; initial salary £70 per annum, increasing by £5 per annum to £100, then if efficient by £7, 10s. to £190, then by £10 to £250, then by £10 to £350. In the last stage the Second Division Clerk is described as a Higher-grade Clerk. Promotions to First Division may be made after eight years' service. There are staff posts ranging up to £500; age limits, seventeen to twenty; fee, £2.

Second Class Outpost Clerks (Customs Service).—Examinations similar to those for Second Division Clerks. Pay and prospects better; promotions to First Class more frequent; fee, £1.

Excise Officers.—Employed all over the United Kingdom in collecting the Beer and Spirit Duties, &c.; subjects, ordinary English; fee, £1; age limits, nineteen and twenty-two, unmarried and no family; commencing salary about £90 per annum, rising to £250 as officers, £400 as supervisors, and thence to £800, &c. Interdepartmental examinations have to be passed.

Customs Officers.—Serve at ports of United Kingdom in collecting Customs Duties, &c.; general regulations resemble those for Excise, but age limits are eighteen and twenty-one—a standard height, &c., is fixed; pay £70 to £340, thence to £600, &c.

Excise Clerkships can be obtained by Excise Assistants after one year's service; work indoor; prospects similar to those of Customs Clerks.

Surveyors of Taxes.—Collect Income Tax. Examination intermediate in character between that of Excise Officer and First Division Clerk; fee, £6; pay, £100 to £600 and £1000.

Prison Clerks.—In the prisons: examination and pay resemble the Second Division Scheme.

Patent Office Examiners.—Examination chiefly scientific; fee, £6; pay, £200 to £360, and higher posts; age, twenty-one to twenty-five.

Nautical Almanac Office Assistant.—Mathematical examination; age, eighteen to twenty-five; fee, £1; pay, £100 to £300, &c.

Museum Assistants.—Nomination required; technical examination; eighteen to thirty; fees, £1 to £4; pay, £100 to £400, &c.

Engineers in Public Works, Ireland; General Post-Office; Royal Mint; Assistant Surveyors on Royal Engineer Civil Staff; Admiralty Dockyards. *Draftsmen* in Admiralty Works Department; Hydrographic Office; Patent Office; Prisons Department. *Lawyers* in Legacy Duty Office, London; Metropolitan Police Clerkships, London and Dublin; General Register Office, Edinburgh; High Court of Justice, England and Ireland; Woods and Forests, England; Public Works Office, Ireland. For full details as to pay and examinations apply to the Civil Service Commission.

Admiralty Dockyard Posts.—Similar examination to that for First Division, but not so severe; age, eighteen to twenty; fee, £6; pay, £100 to £350, thence to £500 and £850. Dockyard Writers are entered locally for service; age, nineteen to thirty; pay, 3s. 6d. per day.

Boy Clerks.—Similar examination to the Second Division, but easier; age limits, fifteen to eighteen; pay, 14s. to 18s. per week; service terminates at twenty. Useful post for study for a higher appointment.

Postal Appointments.—Many higher quasi-technical appointments, such as those of Postmaster, Surveyor, &c., are filled by interdepartmental competition among Clerks, Sorters, and other employés; posts from £100 to £1000; age limits and scales of pay vary greatly.

Male Sorters and Telegraphists.—Filled by open competition; age limits, eighteen to twenty-one for Sorters, and fourteen to eighteen for Telegraphists; subjects, ordinary English; pay in London, 18s. per week to £160 per annum, a little less in country towns; a few higher posts. *Telegraph Messengers*, 6s. to 11s. per week; in time promoted to be *Postmen*, 18s. to 38s. A number of other "minor" postal situations are paid at from 18s. to 60s. per week; information from the General Post-Office, London.

Boatmen in Customs, £55 to £150.

House of Commons Clerk.—Nomination by Speaker; £100 to £1000.

Inspectors of Factories and Mines and *Inspectors' Assistants.*—Nominated by Home Secretary, £100 to £1200. A number of other technical appointments are made at irregular intervals as occasion requires.

Local Governing Bodies—Clerkships in London County Council, London School Board, Metropolitan Asylums Board.—Similar examinations, pay, and conditions of service to those of Second Division Clerks in the Civil Service. There are many opportunities for other clerical and technical employment under local governing bodies all over the country. Application should be made to the Secretary of the Local Authority.

Civil Service (Indian, Colonial, &c.).—*Indian Civil Service.*—Possibly the finest appointments in the world; examination, &c., similar to that for First Division Home Clerks (*q.v.*); pay, £300 to £3000 per annum.

Eastern Cadets.—Similar to Indian Civil Service, but less valuable.

Diplomatic Appointments—similar to First Division Clerks, but Foreign Office nomination required. *Student Interpreters in the East and Far East*—similar to Eastern Cadetships. Further information as to these and

all other Colonial appointments can be obtained *gratis* on application to the Civil Service Commissioners, or the Foreign, India, or Colonial Office—all in London.

Clerks and Commercial Employés.—This term is a very general one, and includes a vast number of people, some doing mere “quill-driving” on very small pay, and others, most important and well-remunerated work.

There is an unfortunate tendency among certain classes to regard the position of a clerk as more “genteel” than that of a skilled mechanic or artisan. Hence the clerical market is flooded with numbers of people with untrained minds, with a smattering of business knowledge and ordinary office routine. There are doubtless many excellent opportunities of advancement for clerks, but only because they cease to be clerks pure and simple, and get to know the details of some business: hence acquiring a quasi-technical knowledge. Those who enter an office as clerks have certainly a good chance of thus acquiring knowledge and business experience, but in these days of large businesses, with many departments, the tendency is for a boy to enter one branch, learn that alone, and then not to move about in that business or in any other, but to sit on a stool and do routine work. Such results as these should be carefully guarded against. A clerk should learn a foreign language, shorthand or type-writing, or both, and book-keeping, and should especially endeavour to master the “ins and outs” of his particular occupation.

It is very difficult within the limits of space available to give much information as to the various careers open to clerks. The main classifications are: (1) those in banks, insurance offices, railway clearing-houses, and the majority of limited liability companies; (2) those in the offices of merchants, particularly those who buy and sell on the produce or other “exchanges”; (3) all those miscellaneous workers “in the city”, in “offices” where commercial business is done; (4) those acting as clerical assistants to professional men, such as lawyers’ clerks, engineers’ clerks, &c.

Those in Class 1 have the greatest certainty of employment of a light and possibly congenial nature. A nomination from some official is usually required, or direct application should be made, as such posts are seldom advertised. Entrants are usually required to pass some qualifying or competitive examination in ordinary “English” subjects. The salaries of juniors commence at from £25 to £40: the highest pay is attainable in banks or similar businesses. The pay rises to £70 or £80, and thence to £150; above these rates there are posts up to £250 and £300, and of course a number of higher superintending posts, say up to £700 and £2000 per annum. Where there are a number of branches there are more responsible and better-paid posts. The higher posts are often filled by capitalists (see under Traders), or accountants (*q.v.*), or actuaries (*q.v.*).

The hours are regular, the work not hard, and the conditions of life not unlike those in a Government office (see “Civil Service”). Pensions are often granted. In fact such a clerk enters an office as a youth (there

is generally a limit of age), and, if he behaves himself, remains there for life.

Clerks comprised under Class 2 are employed in the offices of agents or brokers, who buy and sell on the "exchanges", where so much modern business is conducted. Such clerks include those in the offices of stock-brokers, Lloyd's Marine Insurance Brokers, or of "produce-brokers", who buy and sell in such exchanges as the Baltic, or Mincing Lane in London, or those in Liverpool, Glasgow, &c.

The pay is similar to that of bank clerks, but in these posts there are opportunities of making more money by earning commissions on business done. They are freer, and have more chances, but there is less certainty. Like commercial travellers (*q.v.*), these clerks have many opportunities of getting to know people in the same line of business, and hence of starting in business for themselves.

Clerks comprised in Class 3 approximate to the "mere clerk" type. They know a little bookkeeping, a little office routine, and something of business methods generally. They start as office-boys or "juniors", usually from middle-class or public elementary schools, at 5s. or 6s. per week, and rise in time to 30s. or 35s. per week. Those fairly successful get posts at £120 or £150 or more per annum. Many such posts are obtainable in the offices referred to under Class 2. If these clerks know type-writing and shorthand, or both, their value is at once increased by 10s. or more per week, because then they have some quasi-technical knowledge. £150 is quite a usual salary. The best of such clerks become *Book-keepers* or *Cashiers*, and then, being employed on responsible work, their value is proportionately increased, say up to £300 per annum or more.

As to the Clerks of Class 4, the conditions of life and the rates of pay are similar to those detailed in Class 3. If the clerks of professional men display business capacity and intelligence, they gradually pick up much technical knowledge. This they can supplement and improve, and if they can pass the various professional examinations they may become fully qualified. Means of study can be found in the evening classes in Polytechnics, &c., in large towns. (As to the different occupations see under "Engineer", "Lawyer," "Auctioneer", &c.) If they do not so qualify, they tend to gravitate to such posts as described under Class 3.

Commercial Travellers.—These are usually recruited from clerks in the counting-house of some firm, or from assistants in the different departments. Such men have gradually acquired a knowledge of the business and of the customers of the firm. But it is by no means necessary to have gone through the mill in this fashion. Many successful "commercials" have taken to "the road" owing to want of success in other walks of life, or from desire for travel and change. The life is a trying one, but it is free and independent and full of variety. There are more than the usual business temptations, owing to opportunities for drink or for handling money. Commercial travellers

are either paid by fixed salary and expenses, or by commission only, with perhaps an allowance for expenses. A fair average salary is from £100 to £300 per year, but really good travellers can command much more, say up to £1000 per annum. The allowance for travelling and living expenses varies—sometimes travelling alone is allowed;—from 15s. to £1 per day would be a usual rate, unless exact expenses only were allowed. A large number of commercial travellers are employed abroad, and the tendency in business circles is to employ in such work Englishmen who know foreign languages. Such men are, in fact, in demand. A commercial traveller has excellent opportunities of going into business for himself.

Engineers.—The engineering profession can now be entered in two different ways, either by apprenticeship or by studying at some technical institution. By the former method a premium must be paid to a suitable firm, and an apprenticeship served for three to five years. By the latter method that period of time must be passed in study at some institution fitted with engineering laboratories and a workshop in which the necessary practical experience can be gained. This method is rapidly supplanting apprenticeship. It is less expensive, and gives much better results, because the student is trained in theory and practice by efficient teachers, and is not left to his own devices as in some big works.

The usual premium is from 100 to 300 guineas, partly returnable in wages. The fees at an institution would amount to about £50. Suitable training-colleges are now to be found in all great towns. Lists of firms who take apprentices can be obtained from the secretaries of the great engineering societies, or advertisements can be seen in the chief engineering papers. After his period of study, the young engineer should enter the employment of some firm as an “improver”, at a salary of about £2 per week. He should then be ready to take a post as an assistant engineer. There are many such appointments at home and abroad, from great works such as railways, canals, and buildings. Pay ranges from £80 to £300, and for higher ones from £500 to £1000 and more. Valuable permanent posts are to be found with town corporations and at great manufactories. Engineers are employed in many Government departments, especially the Indian Telegraph Service, Irish Works, Post-Office, and Army and Navy. Information can be obtained from the Civil Service Commissioners and India and Colonial Offices.

It is necessary for a student to decide whether he will become a civil engineer, *i.e.* one employed on great contracting works, whose duties sometimes border on those of a surveyor (*q.v.*), or whether he will settle down to machinery as an electrical or mechanical engineer. The training for the two latter is very much the same. There is a great demand for well-trained electrical engineers.

Lawyers, &c.—*Barristers* in England and Ireland are those who practise in the superior courts of law, but they may appear also in the inferior courts. A university education is desirable but not necessary. Graduates,

however, have certain privileges in exemption from some examinations, and in "keeping terms" with less trouble. All intending barristers must become members of one of the Inns of Court in England—Middle Temple, Inner Temple, Lincoln's Inn, Gray's Inn: in Ireland, King's Inn, Dublin. These Inns bear the same relation to a theoretical legal university as the colleges at Oxford or Cambridge do to the university in those cities. The student must pass a preliminary examination, and generally enters that Inn in which he has friends. The fees at each English Inn are about the same: certain fees have to be paid on admission and others on call to the bar. The total is about £140 at any Inn; in Dublin, about £150. The payment of these fees entitles the student to the use of the Inn Library and to free attendance at lectures. He must then "keep" twelve terms, spread over a period of three years or more. "Keeping terms" in England is done by eating a certain number of dinners in the Common Hall: in Ireland, by eating dinners and by attending lectures as well. Such attendance is not compulsory in England, but in neither country can anyone be "called", *i.e.* become a barrister, until he has passed certain examinations in legal subjects, including Roman Law and English Law in all its main divisions. There is no fixed time for passing the examinations. Certain relaxations in the regulations are made for solicitors wishing to become barristers, or for Irish and some colonial barristers. Valuable studentships are open to competition by students who join the Inns before the age of twenty-five. Full information may be obtained on application to the registrar of any Inn named. In order to obtain the necessary practical knowledge in dealing with cases, a student must read in the chambers of some practitioner. The usual period is one year, but it may vary from six months to two years. The fee is 100 guineas for one year. It is best to read with a busy "junior". Students generally enter at the bar at from twenty-three to thirty years of age. After call they usually elect between practice in common law or in chancery. Books and other expenses amount to about £60.

Success at the bar is largely dependent upon fluency of speech and quickness of thought, but these are by no means the only conditions. The work is very irregular, and the "grind" often hard, while the period of waiting for employment is probably more trying than in any other profession, because work comes not from the public but from solicitors. The mere call to the bar does not ensure work. No one should become a barrister who cannot command about £200 a year for several years at least. The average barrister in practice makes £200 to £400 per annum: a successful man £1000 or more: the very successful make enormous incomes. A number of the last-named become King's Counsel, and then command higher fees and do less drudgery. The Government appointments open to barristers are good, and range from £1000 to £2000 up to £8000 as Lord Chief Justice. Very valuable Colonial and Indian appointments are also made by the secretaries of the respective departments.

In Scotland the *Advocate* is the name given to the barrister. The student must enter the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, from which full information can be obtained. The general course is similar to that in England. The total fees are about £300.

Solicitors in England and Ireland attend to the detailed work of law, especially in relation to the public, and they conduct cases in the lower courts. They have to pass examinations held by the Incorporated Law Societies in London or Dublin, from whom details can be obtained. The subjects are similar to those for the bar. Anyone intending to become a solicitor must also be articled for five years (or three if a graduate). A premium of from 100 to 200 guineas is required; a stamp of £80 must be placed upon the articles. During the apprenticeship two examinations in legal matters must be passed; fees £8. The solicitor's certificate costs £30, and an annual fee has to be paid while he is in practice. The average income is about the same as that of a barrister; the most successful men probably make less, but it is easier to get into practice as a solicitor than as a barrister. The methods are more business-like, and the solicitor comes into close touch with the public. Solicitors can also take posts as managing-clerks with other solicitors, or can enter into partnership. In Scotland the solicitors to the Supreme Court are termed *Writers to the Signet*, and must be indentured as in England. Full information can be obtained from the Signet Office, Edinburgh. The total fees are about £500. *Law Agents* are controlled by the Board of Examiners for Law Agents, Edinburgh, who will give full information. They practise before the Scotch Sheriff Courts. The total fees are about £70. The general course of training, examinations, and career, are as already detailed for solicitors in England.

A *Notary*, who usually is also a solicitor, must have been articled to a notary. His fees are about £40. The central office is the Faculty Office, Knightrider Street, London.

A *Patent Agent* serves as the adviser of those who desire to take out patents. The profession is controlled by the Board of Trade, London. Entrants are usually articled like solicitors; examinations must be passed in patent law and practice.

Marines (Royal).—Entry by open competition; particulars obtained from the Civil Service Commissioners. The limits of age and early training are the same as for the army (*q.v.*). Commissions are obtainable either in the artillery or infantry. The general conditions of service are the same as for the army, but service afloat is much less expensive than service ashore, and in this respect a marine officer's life resembles that of a naval officer. The cost while training at the Royal Naval College is about £80 per annum. The rates of pay vary from £95 for a lieutenant to £730 for a colonel.

Medical Profession.—The necessary qualification for study as a doctor can be obtained by graduation at a university in the medical faculty, or by studying at some hospital and then passing the examinations of

the Royal College of Physicians or Surgeons, or all these methods may be pursued. Prior to entry upon such a course, students must register themselves at the offices of the General Medical Council, in London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, and must pass the medical preliminary in ordinary English subjects, &c., or show evidences by certificates of a good general education. A list of certificates which will be accepted can be obtained on application to the Council. Study should be commenced at about seventeen or eighteen years of age, but many enter much later. Great care must be exercised as to the choice of a hospital for study. The fullest information on these and other points will be found in the student's number of the *Lancet*, published annually in September, price 7*d*. Five years must be spent in the medical schools, &c., at a total cost for tuition fees of 90 to 150 guineas. The examination fees and the fee to the General Medical Council are additional. Remunerative work is begun at from twenty-three to twenty-eight years of age. The lowest class of such work is that of the unqualified assistant, whose pay indoors is from £30 to £60, outdoors from £60 to £100. Qualified men take minor hospital appointments at pay of from £40 to £80 per annum, with board and lodging, or as resident medical officer at £150 to £250. By these means the necessary experience and practice are gained. The usual course is then to become a general practitioner, unless the doctor remains attached to a hospital and becomes a specialist. The price of an average practice ranges from one to three years' income; from £500 to £1000 would be required. If it is intended to work up a practice *ab ovo*, a new district should be selected. Many appointments as medical officers, consulting surgeons, &c., are open to medical men either at fees or fixed rates of salary ranging from £10 to £2000. Information as to army and navy surgeons is given under those heads. There are also valuable appointments in the Indian medical corps, ranging from about £250 per annum for lieutenants to £2000 for the higher ranks; officers and their widows are entitled to pensions.

Dentists.—The general regulations as to the examinations, &c., are the same as for doctors, but the term for study is three years only. The tuition fees vary from 25 to 100 guineas, according to the hospital; the examination fees from 15 to 26 guineas. The cost of instruments is about £30, and of books about £10. The prospects of income are about the same as for doctors, but there is an increasing demand for qualified dentists. Many surgeons combine this qualification with their own.

Chemists must pass certain examinations, and have practical experience in a pharmacy. The examinations are the usual preliminary in "English" subjects, Latin, &c., and one or two professional examinations; one is sufficient. The apprenticeship fee is from £40 to £90; the term is three years. The professional examination cannot be passed till the age of twenty-one; the fee is 5 guineas. Special class study is usually required, and costs from £15 to £30. Chemists can make an income as unqualified assistants, and receive pay varying from £30 to £70. After passing their examination they earn from £100 to £150 per annum. To start in business

requires at least £200; a fair amount of capital would be from £500 to £1000, and an average income about £300 or more.

Dispensers who have passed the chemist's examination are employed in hospitals, &c., at salaries from £2 per week upwards.

Male *nurses* are usually recruited from men who have served in the army medical corps. They are employed in hospitals, or in private cases, and receive from £30 per annum upwards.

Veterinary Surgeons must have studied at one of the veterinary colleges in England or Scotland, and have passed the examinations of the Royal Veterinary College, London, which are similar to those for ordinary medical men. The total fees for tuition and examinations range from 80 to 100 guineas.

Mercantile Marine.—This can be entered either as a ship's boy, age fifteen to seventeen, with about £1 per month, or as an apprentice with a view to becoming an officer. The former becomes able seaman, cook, &c., with pay from £2 to £8 per month according to service and experience, and may become a mate. The latter pays a premium varying from £20 to £50 or even more, and engages to serve from four to seven years. A list of reputable firms who take apprentices can be obtained on application to the Board of Trade, London, S.W. A boy trained on such a ship as the *Conway* at Liverpool has a good chance; the charges vary from £50 to £60 per annum for two years. Before becoming a mate or a captain, nautical examinations, held by the Board of Trade, have to be passed; full particulars can be obtained on application. A mate's pay varies from £4 to £20 a month; a master's from £14 to £22, but on the great liners the latter receive as much as £800 per annum, with allowances. All those on a ship receive food free of cost. Posts as *pilots*, &c., are also obtainable, income about £400. *Engineers* must have served as such ashore and at sea before obtaining their Board of Trade certificates; the pay varies from £5 per month for a third engineer on a sailing ship to £30 for the chief engineer of a liner. *Pursers'* posts are procured by nomination from shipping companies.

Musicians.—A taste for the profession of music generally manifests itself at a very early age. The greatest care should be taken to get suitable instruction. In London the Royal Academy of Music, the Royal College of Music, the Guildhall School of Music, and Trinity College, are the best teaching centres. Those who desire to follow music as a profession should also study abroad. If they desire to teach music, they should graduate at some university. A post as organist is a very desirable one as a "stand-by" until a connection is formed and pupils begin to come in. The fixed salary of organists varies from £40 to £100 per annum, or £300 in cathedrals. Private lessons can be given—average fee 2 to 4 guineas for twelve lessons.

Navy.—Entrance into the commissioned ranks of the Navy is obtained by passing competitive examinations, particulars as to which can be obtained from the Civil Service Commissioners. Naval officers are either combatant or civil, but all wear uniform. Entry into the combatant

branch is obtained as a naval cadet, for which a nomination must be given by the Admiralty; the examinations are held three times a year, the subjects being English, French, Latin, Mathematics, Drawing, and Science. The limits of age are fourteen to fifteen and a half. Naval cadets are trained in the Naval College at Dartmouth. The fees are £75 per annum, but less for specially-selected service cadets. Extra expenses for outfit and personal expenses are also incurred, and the total cost is about £150 for the first year and £100 for the second. The instruction is in professional subjects. In about two years after joining the fleet a cadet attains the rank of midshipman, and his pay rises from £18 to £38 per annum. His professional studies continue during all this time. When about twenty he becomes a sub-lieutenant on passing the examination, and receives £91 per annum; then he rises to lieutenant, with varying rates of pay, amounting in about twelve years to £255. He can also obtain special-service pay, and so add from £20 to £70 to his income. In the meanwhile he will have had to spend at least about £200 for new uniforms, &c. These expenses and the contributions to the mess naturally fall most heavily in the earlier years, so that no one should join the combatant branch of the Navy unless he have some private income, at least during the first eight years, of £50 to £80 per annum. As a lieutenant he can live comfortably on his pay. His next rank is that of commander, with from £400 to £500 per annum, then captain, with a maximum of £600 per annum and allowances. A rear-admiral receives about £1000 per annum, and a full admiral about £1500, with large allowances for table-money, but of course their expenses for entertainments, &c., are great. Many naval officers obtain, on retirement, civilian employment as marine inspectors, harbour-masters, &c., both at home and in the colonies.

Assistant Clerks must obtain a nomination from the Admiralty. The limits of age are sixteen to eighteen. The examination is in subjects similar to those for the cadets. Two examinations are held annually. The fee is £1. No private means are required beyond a payment of £20 for the first one or two years. The commencing pay is £45, and the rank of clerk is reached after about one year's service. Then paymaster's rank is attained, the pay in which commences at £91 and rises through various grades to about £600, with extra pay for special duties. Two service examinations have to be passed.

Naval Engineers usually enter by open competition; the subjects are similar to those already named. The age limits are fourteen and seventeen; the fee is £1. Engineer students are trained in the dockyards for about five years, and £40 per annum must be paid for their keep, but they receive a small pay; other personal expenses amount to about £25. Service examinations have to be passed. Assistant engineers start with £136, and rise through various ranks to that of inspector of machinery, with about £800 per annum. Engineers can also enter between twenty and twenty-three after an examination in technical subjects and after a course at some engineering college.

Naval Constructors are selected from engineer students, and receive special training, and pay rising from £110 to £1800.

Naval Instructors are employed to teach young officers afloat, principally in mathematics. The examination is held principally in that subject. The fee is £1; the age limits twenty to thirty-five. The pay ranges from £219 to £400 and allowances.

Chaplains often hold these posts as well as doing their religious duty. They must be in priest's orders, and are appointed by the War Office; age limit, thirty-five; pay £206 to £400, with extra pay for educational work as above. All these naval officers are eligible for pension.

Royal Indian Marine.—Appointments to this service are made by the India Office. Boys trained on such ships as the *Worcester* in the Thames are usually selected. The limits of age are seventeen and twenty-two for a lieutenant, and eighteen to twenty-five for an engineer; the pay of the former rises from £90 to about £700, of the latter from £112 to about £500. Indian pilots are also appointed—pay £110 to £500. Engineers must have worked in that capacity for at least four years, but need not have been to sea. For the other appointments named sea-service is required.

Seamen in the Royal Navy are accepted as boys between the ages of fifteen and one-fourth to sixteen and three-fourths. They must have had an elementary education. After acceptance they are of no further expense to their parents. They rise from £22 per annum to about £300 as warrant officers, with allowances. Full information is given in the pamphlet obtainable *gratis* in any post-office.

Religious Employment.—Nearly all the chief religious bodies require the candidate for the ministry to undergo a course of religious instruction in some theological college; and graduation at a university is becoming more and more desirable.

In the *Church of England*, candidates for deacon's orders must have fulfilled one or other of these requirements, and may be examined further by the bishop before ordination. There are a large number of theological colleges, and a handbook giving full information is published by Longmans at 6d. The fees vary from £60 to £120, including board and lodging; less of course for non-residents. Application for ordination must be made to the bishop in whose diocese a curate desires to serve. He must be at least twenty-three, and cannot become a priest till the age of twenty-four. Nominations to livings in the Church of England rest with bishops and other individuals, mostly land-owners. A curate's pay varies from £90 to £200. An incumbent's income varies from £200 to £500. Higher posts in the Church are those of deans, canons, and bishops, with incomes from £700 to £15,000 per annum. A curate in the ordinary course would probably receive a living in about ten years from ordination, unless interest obtained it for him earlier. A number of posts as *chaplains* are open to the clergy. Numerous colonial and Indian appointments are made from the ranks of the home clergy. Indian appointments lie with the India

Office. The average pay for such appointments, or for missionaries, bears a close analogy to the emoluments in this country.

Wesleyan ministers are selected from those conspicuous in some church or circuit as lay preachers. They are trained for three years at a college; cost about £50 to £70 per annum. The pay is from £150 to £400 per annum, with allowances for wife and family. The conditions of life in this communion are probably fairer and more comfortable for the average man than in any other. Information as to the colleges, &c., can be obtained from the Wesleyan Centenary Hall, Bishopsgate, London.

Congregational ministers must study and be examined in a similar manner to that already described; cost about £80 for five years. Information obtainable from the Congregational Union Memorial Hall, London. Income from £70 to £1000 or more; average, £250 to £400.

Baptist ministers.—Similar conditions of service to above. Information from the Baptist Union, Fournival Street, London.

Presbyterians.—Similar conditions prevail. A manse is usually provided free. Information as to England from the Presbyterian Church Offices, 7 East India Avenue, London. This body includes the Established Church of Scotland, and the non-established branch is very numerous in that country and in the north of Ireland. Many ministers are trained at the Scotch universities, and there are colleges at Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, London, Belfast, and Londonderry.

Miscellaneous.—*Unitarian ministers* and those of other religious communities generally undergo a similar course of training to those already named. The minimum stipend for an average minister is perhaps £120, for a successful man £1000 or more. *Roman Catholic priests* are usually set apart from childhood. The training is very severe. Minimum age for ordination, twenty-five. The pay varies from £40 per annum upwards, and is usually a bare minimum.

Sanitary Inspectors.—The interest now taken in public health matters and the development of local government is gradually leading to the recognition of this new form of employment open to builders, plumbers, surveyors, &c. Inspectors must have passed the examinations in sanitary matters of the Sanitary Institute, Parkes Museum, Margaret Street, London. An inspector deals with nuisances, bad drains, want of ventilation, &c. His pay ranges from £100 to £250 per annum.

Secretaries.—The great growth of limited liability companies, and the necessity for trained men to take offices in them, has led in recent years to the formation of an Institute of Secretaries, London, which holds suitable examinations. A secretary should have a knowledge of mercantile law, book-keeping, and other commercial subjects. He is usually appointed on account of his special knowledge, share in the company, or interest with the directors, but there is an increasing tendency to require some sort of training. The pay varies from £200 to many thousands per annum. *Private secretaries* to members of parliament or to people with a large correspondence are usually filled by private nomination, but adver-

tisements are sometimes seen in papers. A knowledge of shorthand and type-writing is required. The pay varies from £100 upwards. Similar remarks apply to the secretaryship of public institutions, small and large.

Singers.—Those who become professional singers usually begin as members of choirs, in which they show ability. Serious voice-training should not commence till the age of seventeen. Great care should be exercised in the choice of a teacher, and several years' study are required. The general training is the same as for musicians (*q.v.*). The usual fee to a good performer is five guineas, but the range is from 5s. upwards. Of course an artiste at the top of the profession can command very large fees, but no one should imagine that such eminence is easily reached, even by a singer with great natural gifts. Hard work, hard study, and constant practice must be expected. Many singers earn a large income by giving private lessons.

Music-hall Artistes make about £150 to £500 on the average, but successful "stars" earn as much as £1000 to £3000 per annum. Payment is usually made at so much a "turn". Engagements are procured through theatrical agents.

Surveyors in connection with building and engineering operations require the respective trainings described under the heads of "Architect", "Builder", "Engineer", and "Agriculture". A surveyor's specialty is the estimation of quantities required in the construction of some work. Surveyors are usually apprenticed, and pass the examinations of the Surveyors' Institution, London, S.W.

Teachers, &c.—The teaching profession is best followed by those who have graduated at some university, or who have studied at some training-college for teachers. There are four chief kinds of appointments: (*a*) Secondary teachers, including professorships and posts in public schools, &c.; (*b*) Public elementary teachers, including those in board schools, national schools, &c.; (*c*) teachers in private schools; (*d*) lecturers and specialists. A good degree at Oxford or Cambridge is the best passport to the first named. The pay of university professors or of head-masters at the great schools varies from £1000 to £3000 and more, but it is much less in the smaller institutions; the pay of assistants is from £100 to £700 or more. Public elementary teachers must be graduates or have undergone a course as specified by the Education Department: they can start as pupil-teachers at fifteen, and must pass a regular course of examinations. The pay then varies from 5s. to 12s. per week. Good students have a free college course, but must keep themselves and pay £15 for books, &c. Pay under a school board, £95 to £155 as an assistant, or to £350 as a head: less in voluntary schools, &c. Teachers of both classes *a* and *b* are found in private schools. The pay varies from £30 to £150, with board and lodging. Private tutors can earn up to £200 per annum and all found.

As lecturers and specialists all sorts of teachers obtain employment. They call at different schools, or give stated day and evening courses at

public institutions. An increasing number of science and technical teachers are thus employed. The pay is from 2s. to £1 per hour: a fair average is from 5s. to 7s. 6d. Schoolmasters are required in the army and navy: apply for particulars to War Office or Admiralty.

Traders.—It is impossible in the space available to go into much detail on this point. To enter into trade requires a certain amount of capital and special knowledge of the details of the trade in question. Wholesale trade is more than ever carried on by several men in partnership, some with capital, some with brains and necessary knowledge; or by limited liability companies, officered by experts, and presided over by directors with some general knowledge of business. (See under “Accountants”, “Secretaries”, &c.) Retail traders continue, however, to manage their own businesses, but even they are coming under the company promoter. People enter into retail trade after learning it as an apprentice or shop assistant, or by buying a business and carrying it on with or without an experienced manager. The amount of capital required varies from a few hundred pounds upwards. The situation of the shop counts for much. A business can be learnt best in a country town, or in a small shop in a large town; then a more important establishment should be entered and experience thus gained. The premium for learning a business ranges from £20 to £50. Small wages are paid, at least in the fourth or fifth year of service. The best age to enter is sixteen or seventeen.

Assistants in shops live indoors or out: in the former case the wages vary from £12 to £20 per annum up to £70; in the latter, from £50 to £150. The pay of managers and buyers varies from £100 to £500 per annum.

The net profits in ordinary miscellaneous and general shops vary from £2 to £3 per week; in large shops in some special line very large incomes are earned.

Writers, &c.—The number of people engaged in literary work of one kind or another is very great. As no special training is required, the opening seems easy, but steady practice is necessary, and it is difficult to make a living because there are so many competitors from the ranks of those who earn money in other ways. The best-paid, and those in most regular employment, are *journalists*. A knowledge of shorthand and type-writing is most desirable. Many university men work in newspaper offices. A start is usually made as reporter or general utility man in a newspaper office. The chief requirement is ability to write a neat paragraph or account of some event. The pay of a junior at such work ranges from £50 to £130, according to the class of paper. Suitable men obtain posts as sub-editors at pay from £150 to £600. The salaries of editors range from £500 to £2000.

Journalists who are attached to no special paper, but send “copy” to any, are paid at from 2d. to 3d. per line; pay for “column” articles varies from one to three guineas; pay per page at from 15s. upwards. Payment is usually made monthly, or on the publication of accepted

articles. There are many openings as interviewers and specialists or technical writers in trade papers. Contributions should be clearly written, on one side of the paper only. The pages should be numbered in the right-hand corner and fastened on the left. The name and address should appear at the top right corner of the first page. A note should be written to the editor offering the article for publication on his usual terms, and calling attention to any special feature. Type-written articles often receive better consideration than MS. Stamps should be sent for its return if unaccepted.

Authors.—Much information as to the ways and methods of literary men will be found in their biographies, &c. The general remarks just made apply to the writing of books. There is an increasing and ever-unsatisfied demand for short stories and bright descriptive articles—length about two thousand words. The copyright of books written should be retained if possible. An agreement should be made with a publisher to publish on a royalty to be increased after the sale of a certain number of copies.

Translators can obtain employment for English versions of specially interesting matter, especially from technical or trade papers.

Amongst other employments connected with literary work may be named *Librarians*, who generally enter libraries as clerks, and whose pay varies from £120 to £500 per annum. Employment can often be obtained at *indexing* work for papers, &c., or at *Press-cutting agencies*. *Publishers* of books require capital and the ordinary business training, as also do *booksellers* and *stationers*. The Institute of Journalists and the Society of Authors in London give much information as to their respective work.

II. OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN.

The census of 1901 shows that there are nearly a million more women than men in the United Kingdom, a very large proportion of whom are dependent on their own exertions for maintenance.

It is now generally acknowledged that if women are to do good work they must receive definite technical training for what they undertake to do.

Though it is often difficult to discover in what branch of industry a girl is most likely to be successful, in every case a sound English education is the foundation on which the special training should be based. By the time a girl is sixteen or seventeen years of age her parents or teachers will be able to judge, to some extent at least, in what direction her talents lie; some have powers of mind, some manual dexterity and skill, and in selecting the course of training which should be followed it is most important that the natural gifts of each should be well considered.

Accountants.—Although women are not yet admitted as members of the Institute of Chartered Accountants, there are some who are practising very successfully as accountants and auditors, undertaking the same work as chartered accountants. A lad who wishes to become a chartered accountant must serve for five years as an articled clerk in an accountant's office, and a young woman must be prepared to devote the same length of time to learning thoroughly the work she proposes to do. The subjects of the examination which all members of the institute have to pass show the sort of knowledge required, viz. book-keeping of all kinds, including partnership and executorship accounts; auditing; the rights and duties of liquidators, trustees, and receivers; the principles of the laws of bankruptcy, of joint-stock companies, and of mercantile law in general. The work is suited to a clear-headed girl whose knowledge of arithmetic is good and accurate. She should begin her special training as soon as she leaves school, but even after her five years of study should not start on her own account until she has gained some experience by serving as an assistant.

An accountant's fees are high, but they vary considerably according to the nature of the work to be done.

Book-keepers.—A large number of women are employed as book-keepers in houses of business, and are able to earn fair wages. A book-keeper must be neat, accurate, and methodical. She must write a clear hand, taking special care to make her figures distinctly. She must understand the principles of book-keeping by double and single entry, and have some knowledge of the tabular system now so much used. She should also be able to write a good business letter. The Society for Promoting the Employment of Women, 22 Berners Street, London, started the first adult class thirty-eight years ago. Now book-keeping is taught at all the polytechnics and evening colleges and at many schools. It is desirable that the instruction should be given by a practical book-keeper who has had experience in business. Shorthand and type-writing are valuable additions to a knowledge of book-keeping, but are not always necessary. A knowledge of French or German too will be found very useful. The salary of a competent book-keeper varies from £1 to £2, 10s. weekly.

Vacancies are generally advertised in the *Daily Telegraph*, *Daily Chronicle*, and other papers. A register is often kept at the place where the instruction is given.

Children's Nurses.—There is a good demand for gentlewomen as nurses for children, and if a mother is for any reason unable to devote considerable time and attention to her children herself, her best substitute will be a properly trained lady nurse.

At the Norland Institute, Holland Park Avenue, the best possible training is to be obtained. Here gentlewomen over eighteen years of age are taken as pupils for nine months. The first three months are spent in the institute, where they learn to cut out and make children's

clothes, also a little plain dressmaking, the food and clothing best suited for children, and simple kindergarten occupations. During the next three months they attend a children's hospital, and during the last three months they have practical work with children by going as probationer nurses into a family. The fees for the six months' training in the institute, including the hospital fees, board, lodging, and apparatus, are thirty-six guineas, payable half on entrance and half after three months. The minimum salary of a trained nurse is £20 a year, rising £2 annually for three years, after which time the nurse is independent of the institute, and can usually get a much higher salary.

Gentlewomen can also be trained at Sesame House, Acacia Road, St. John's Wood, and at the Children's Hospital and Day Nursery at Plaistow. In the latter a very useful training can be obtained for a fee of £30 for one year.

Chromolithography.—Girls who are fond of drawing and have a natural talent for it will find lithography and chromolithography congenial to them. Before beginning to learn this art a student ought to have obtained the South Kensington Elementary Certificate. The better a girl draws at starting the more rapid will be her progress. The Chromolithographic Art Studio at 24A Gloucester Street, Queen Square, London, was established in 1882 for the training and employment of women in this art, and work of a very high class is executed there. Both artied and ordinary pupils are received. The artied pupils pay a premium of £30 for three years, earning a little weekly after eighteen months. Ordinary pupils pay an entrance fee of 10s. 6d. and £12, 12s. a year; but a student must be prepared to devote three years at least to training if she wishes to do really good work.

A few lithographers take girls as apprentices for a premium ranging from £30 to £50 for three or four years, the premium and time varying according to the artistic skill of the apprentice; small wages are paid during the apprenticeship.

A skilled chromolithographer can earn from 30s. to 40s. a week, and sometimes more.

Clerkships.—Clerkships of various kinds are open to women, and the sedentary nature of the work is very suitable to them. Of late years a limited number have been employed in the Bank of England, but in every case these appointments have been obtained through private interest. All candidates must be nominated; those who have passed the Oxford or Cambridge Locals are not required to go up for any further examination, but those who hold no certificates have to pass a test examination.

The arrangements for the lady clerks are very comfortable. Their salary begins at £54 a year, and rises to £100.

At those branches of the National Penny Bank which are open during the daytime several young women are employed, and they earn salaries which vary according to their efficiency and accuracy. Candidates

for appointments in this bank must be fairly well educated, and write neatly and carefully, making their figures very distinctly.

The daughters of professional men are employed in the Prudential Insurance Office. Applications for appointments are very numerous, and the vacancies few. The age at which candidates can enter is from eighteen to twenty-five. The salary begins at £32 yearly and rises to £60; those who become superintendents receive more.

In offices and houses of business there is also a moderate demand for young women who can write a good hand, and do ordinary office work, such as arranging papers, docketing letters, &c. Such clerks receive from 15s. to 20s. weekly.

There is a greater demand for women who can write shorthand at a fair speed, and type that which has been dictated, expressing it in good English and punctuating it correctly. A knowledge of French, German, or Spanish is most useful to such clerks, and one who can correspond in one or two foreign languages receives from £2 to £3 weekly, and sometimes more.

Vacancies for clerks are usually advertised, and those seeking appointments should not fail to look for them in the daily papers. Situations may also be heard of from employment agencies.

Government Clerkships.—A large number of women are engaged as clerks in the different departments of the General Post-Office. Candidates for appointments in the Savings-Bank, which is the most remunerative department, must be between eighteen and twenty years of age, unmarried, and duly qualified in health and character. The competition for these appointments is very keen; there are frequently eight to ten candidates for every vacancy. The examination is open to all. The subjects are—handwriting, arithmetic (advanced), English composition (with special reference to grammatical accuracy), geography, English history, and French or German. Every candidate attending an examination has to pay a fee of 7s. 6d.

The salary of a woman clerk in the Savings-Bank begins at £55 a year, rising by £2, 10s. annually to £70, then by £5 to £100. There are higher classes, promotion to which depends on merit.

There are also girl clerks in the Savings-Bank Department. Candidates must be between sixteen and eighteen years of age. The subjects in which they are examined are the same as those for the women clerks, and the fee is the same. For the first three years the salary is £35, £37, 10s., and £40 respectively. After three years a girl clerk can be promoted to be a woman clerk as soon as a vacancy occurs, provided she has received a good recommendation from the head of the department in which she has worked.

Girls between fifteen and eighteen can become candidates for appointments as sorters in the General Post-Office in London. Their duties consist chiefly in sorting and arranging official papers. The subjects in which they are examined are reading and copying manuscripts, handwriting, arithmetic, and the geography of the United Kingdom. The salary begins at 12s. weekly, rising gradually to 21s. 6d., and in cases of special merit to 30s.

Telegraph learners must also be between fifteen and eighteen years of age. They are examined in handwriting, orthography, English composition, arithmetic, and general geography. Those who are successful in the examination attend the post-office telegraph school for four or five months, neither paying nor receiving pay. On obtaining an appointment their salary begins at 10s. weekly and rises to 28s., and in the case of those who earn first-class certificates for good conduct and efficiency in the discharge of their duties, to 38s.

In every department the examinations are competitive. A clerk must resign her post when she marries. All candidates must be five feet in height and in sound health.

Dispensing.—The number of women employed as dispensers, though still small, is on the increase. The work is very suitable for properly-qualified women who are careful and accurate. They must gain certificates either from the Society of Apothecaries or from the Pharmaceutical Society. They can get appointments in hospitals, especially in those for women and children, in dispensaries, private surgeries, and elsewhere. The salary ranges from about £80 or £90 a year upwards.

Women can be trained at the Westminster College of Pharmacy, Trinity Square, Borough, London, S.E., for the preliminary, the minor, and the major examinations of the Pharmaceutical Society, as well as for those of the Apothecaries' Society. The fees for three months' instruction in subjects required for the preliminary examination are £3, 3s.; for the minor, viz. practical pharmacy and dispensing, £8, 8s.; and for the major, £5, 5s.; but frequently a longer preparation is necessary, and for this an extra charge is made. The laboratories at the college are open daily from 1 till 4 p.m.

Women can also attend the lectures and examinations at the Pharmaceutical Society, 17 Bloomsbury Square, London. The fee for the preliminary examination is £2, 2s., but if the candidate has passed other recognized examinations her certificates are received in lieu of this, provided Latin, arithmetic (involving a good knowledge of the British and the metrical systems of weights and measures), and English grammar and composition have been taken.

In the rules of the Pharmaceutical Society one of the compulsory subjects for the preliminary examination is "*Arithmetic.*—Numeration; first four rules, simple and compound; reduction, vulgar and decimal fractions; simple and compound proportion; a thorough knowledge of the British and metrical systems of weights and measures; percentages and stocks. In each examination paper a question will be given involving a knowledge of the metrical system, which every candidate will be required to attempt." (See page 2 of the *Particulars of the Examinations of the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain.*)

The cost of the lectures for the minor examinations is £30 inclusive, and for the major £18 inclusive. Candidates for these examinations must be at least twenty-one years of age, and must have been employed for three years as apprentices or students, or in translating and dispensing prescriptions.

This practical work can be learnt at some dispensaries, hospitals, infirmaries, or in private surgeries, but few chemists are willing to take young women as apprentices.

Women can also train as analytical chemists and become Associates of the Institute of Chemistry. They must be at least twenty-one years of age, and have passed an examination, approved by the Council, in theoretical and practical chemistry, physics, and elementary mathematics.

Excellent instruction in this branch of chemistry is given to women at a moderate cost at Owens College, Manchester, where a good laboratory is set apart for their use.

Inspectorships.—Educated women have during the past few years held appointments as Inspectors of Factories and Workshops. It is most desirable that their number should be increased, because so many women and girls work in factories. All such appointments are made by the Home Secretary, to whom testimonials of character and qualifications must be sent. Candidates for these posts have also to pass an examination and gain a certificate from the Civil Service Commissioners. The subjects in which they are examined are handwriting, spelling, English composition, arithmetic to decimals, and an elementary knowledge of the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Acts. They must be between twenty-one and forty years of age. Examinations are held only when there are vacancies to be filled. The salary of a lady factory inspector is from £200 to £300 a year, with travelling expenses.

Under the Local Government Board there is an Inspector of Children boarded out, whose salary is £400 a year.

In the Education Department, a lady is Inspector of Needlework at a salary of £300 a year; another is Inspector of Cookery, receiving £250 a year.

Some women also hold appointments as Sanitary Inspectors in different parts of the kingdom. They are appointed by the parish councils. They must hold a certificate from the Sanitary Inspectors' Examination Board or from the Sanitary Institute of Great Britain. Lectures on sanitation and hygiene are given at the National Health Society, and lectures on the duties and powers of sanitary inspectors are given at the Sanitary Institute in Margaret Street, Regent Street, London.

The salary of a sanitary inspector is fixed by the vestry. It varies from £70 to £110, or more in some cases.

Librarians.—There is no official return of the number of women who are employed in the public libraries in different parts of the kingdom, but in Manchester alone about 80 women hold appointments as assistant librarians. As far as can be ascertained, women are engaged in between 20 and 30 libraries in different towns. The regulations under which they hold their appointments differ considerably. They usually begin as junior assistants at very small salaries.

Any woman who desires an appointment as librarian will find her chances of success considerably improved if she attends the classes

arranged by the Library Association, and if she passes the examinations held by that association. The honorary secretary to the Examination Committee, 44a Southwark Bridge Road, London, S.E., will furnish full information concerning them.

The examination is divided into three sections: (1) Bibliography and literary history; (2) cataloguing, classification and shelf arrangement; and (3) library management. The sections may be taken separately, and a certificate is granted for each.

Candidates must have passed some recognized public examination, or must produce satisfactory evidence of a good education, or have been engaged in practical library work for three years previous to the examination.

Matrons in Institutions.—The head matron in an institution is responsible for the management of the house and the inmates. She should have received the training in domestic economy which is provided at the polytechnic and technical schools in London and in different parts of the country. She must see that the assistant matrons are efficient in their respective departments. A head matron has generally been first an assistant matron.

The salary of a head matron varies, but is usually about £40 to £60; that of an assistant matron is about £18 to £25. Vacancies are frequently advertised, and are also to be heard of through employment agencies and societies.

Matrons and Warders in Prisons.—Matrons in prisons are selected from the warders. Candidates for appointments as assistant warders must be in perfectly sound health, between twenty-three and forty years of age, unmarried, or widows without children, and not less than 5 feet 3 inches in height. The most rigid enquiries are made into the character and antecedents of the candidates, and preference is given to those who know some trade or industry which they can teach to the female prisoners.

The salary of assistant warders is from £45 to £50, and that of warders from £55 to £70, with rooms, fire, gas, uniform, and medical attendance.

Those who can comply with all the conditions should make application to the Prison Commissioners, Home Office, Whitehall, London.

All accepted candidates must pass an examination in reading, writing, and arithmetic.

Matrons in Schools.—The duties of matrons depend so completely on the nature of the post they occupy that it is not possible to state comprehensively what their qualifications should be.

The matron in a school for the sons of gentlemen should be a lady, motherly and kind, accustomed to boys, and able to win their confidence and respect. She has to attend to the health of the boys, nursing them in slight ailments and accidents. She ought to have had experience in nursing and to understand "first aid to the injured". She has to keep the boys' clothes in order, and to see that the bedrooms are clean and well-aired. The salary is generally from £30 to £50 a year, and upwards.

In a girls' school the matron's duties are similar.

Vacancies seldom occur in the middle of the term. They are usually advertised.

Medicine.—Many women are now engaged in the medical profession. The General Medical Council regulates the conditions of admission into its ranks. There are seven examining bodies whose diploma admits into this profession, and the student, before beginning her course of study, should decide which degree or diploma she wishes to obtain, as the rules and conditions of each differ.

In every case a preliminary examination must be passed, and must include the following subjects:—English grammar and composition, Latin grammar and translation, the elements of mathematics, arithmetic, algebra to simple equations, geometry, including the first three books of Euclid, and one modern language.

If the student has passed any of the examinations recognized by the General Medical Council (a list of which can be obtained at the office, 299 Oxford Street, London) this preliminary examination is not required, provided the subjects mentioned above have been taken. If the student wishes to take the degree of the London University, or of the Royal University of Ireland, she must matriculate in the ordinary way.

A course of five years' study is required by the Medical Council, but failure to pass the various examinations as they come will throw a student back for three or six months. The fees at the London School of Medicine for Women, including the hospital fees, are £125 if paid in one sum, and £135 if paid by instalments. In addition to this the fees for the examinations for a diploma are as follows:—

Diplomas in Medicine, Surgery, and Midwifery, Society of Apothecaries, London, £15, 15s.

Diplomas of College of Physicians and Surgeons, Edinburgh, and Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons, Glasgow, £30.

Diploma of College of Physicians and Surgeons, Ireland, in Medicine, Surgery, and Midwifery, £42.

M.B., University of London, £15.

M.B., B.Ch., and B.A.O., Royal University of Ireland, £15.

M.B. and Ch.B., University of Glasgow, £23, 2s.

M.B., B.Sc., University of Durham, £30.

There are a few scholarships at the London School of Medicine (30 Handel Street, London, W.C.), some especially for the benefit of those who propose to take up Zenana work, or to act as medical missionaries among heathen or Mahomedan races. There is great need for women as doctors in India. A recently published list of registered medical women contains 411 names. Of these 101 are practising in India, 23 in China, and 9 in different parts of Africa.

Several lady doctors hold important official positions in the United Kingdom or abroad.

Needlework.—As fancy-work and embroidery have been spoken of elsewhere (see Vol. III.), plain needlework alone remains to be considered

here. It is not a remunerative occupation. The best hand-work commands a fair price; but it takes a long time to make a garment neatly, and the work is trying to the sight. There is, however, a fair demand for teachers of plain work, dress-cutting, and millinery for the technical classes established in many parts of the country. Candidates for such appointments should hold certificates or diplomas from the Institute for the Advancement of Plain Needlework, or some other recognized examining body.

The subjects in a teachers' examination include drawing diagrams, cutting out a garment to measure, showing samples of all the stitches required for making it, marking, darning, patching, &c. The candidate is also required to write a clear description of the work. The fee for the examination is 5s.

Dress cutting and making are also taught in the technical classes. The teacher must understand one of the many systems recognized by the Education Department and the County Councils. In every case she must draw diagrams and explain them.

These technical classes are very useful, but they do not give sufficient training for business. They supplement but do not take the place of apprenticeship.

Dressmaking and millinery are far more remunerative than plain work. A good dressmaker who cuts and fits well can always earn a good salary. The "hands" who can make part of a dress only are frequently out of work for weeks together in the dull season, and seldom earn more than 15s. to 20s. a week when in full work.

Upholstery is another branch of plain work which is fairly remunerative. Some few women can cut out for and fit furniture of all kinds well, but the greater number who work in shops only make up what has been cut out for them. Technical classes for upholstery have lately been started at some polytechnics.

Nursing the Sick.—Those who desire to undertake nursing the sick ought to be strong and healthy, with no organic weakness. The work is trying, and if any weakness exists hospital work is very apt to develop it. The age at which probationers should begin their training is between twenty-four and thirty-five, though in children's hospitals they are frequently taken younger. Nurses can be trained in a great many hospitals in London and in the country. The terms vary; in some cases probationers are required to pay 20s. or 21s. weekly, and are trained for one year only, but in most cases the nurse serves the hospital for three or four years, paying no fee, but receiving a salary from the first, generally about £10 or £12 a year, rising to £20 or £25.

At the end of her training a nurse sometimes remains on the nursing staff at the hospital, sometimes she becomes a member of a nursing institution. She can seldom start by herself, unless she is well known to doctors who will recommend her, and even then, though she earns more at each case than she would if she went from an institution, her expenses are

greater, for she has to keep a home, and she has frequent intervals between her engagements during which she earns nothing.

The training necessary for monthly nursing lasts only from six to eight weeks. The fee varies from six to ten guineas, but this covers board and lodging during the training.

A district or village nurse tends the sick poor in their own homes, going from house to house and helping in and directing the care of the invalids. She shows those who are in charge of the sick person how to make and apply poultices, and how to carry out the doctor's orders. She also attends as far as possible to the sanitary condition of the sick-room. She ought to be active and strong, as well as fully trained, and should understand monthly as well as ordinary nursing.

A nurse who possesses tact, and is genial and kind in her manner, soon gains the confidence and affection of the poor. She is usually appointed by the clergy of the district. Her salary is from about £50 upwards, with rooms.

Photography.—Many women are employed in the mechanical parts of photography, such as printing, mounting, and spotting, but the salaries they earn are small, seldom exceeding £1 weekly, and are often less. A lady who is successful in re-touching portraits can earn £2 or more weekly, but she must be well trained and have very good sight.

Comparatively few women have made a high position for themselves as operators. Photographers can seldom be found who will teach women to take portraits. They will teach the mechanical, but not the higher parts of the work. At the School of Photography connected with the Polytechnic in Regent Street, London, the whole process can be learnt, including the arrangement of light and shade, the management of the camera, the posing of the sitter, the development, printing, and the details of platinotype and other printing. Some of the most successful lady photographers have received their instruction there. The fee for one year is £50. Those only should attempt this work who possess artistic taste and have had a good art training.

Physical Training.—Women who desire to be trained as teachers of physical exercises must be healthy, of good physique generally, with strong vocal organs. They must have a bright manner, tact, and strength of character sufficient to enable them to maintain good discipline in the class. A knowledge of anatomy and physiology sufficient to show them how all the muscles are brought into use is also requisite. Slightly deformed or delicate children are frequently much helped and strengthened by means of exercises specially adapted to each case.

The training lasts two years, and a student should begin to learn when about eighteen years of age. Madame Oesterberg's college for physical training on the Swedish system, at Dartford, is in many respects the best place for learning. The terms for board, lodging, and instruction are £105 a year. Miss Chreiman of York Place, Baker Street, London, takes both articled and ordinary pupils. Her terms for articled pupils are sixty

guineas for the two or three years, and for ordinary pupils two guineas a session. These terms do not include board and lodging. Fräulein Wilke at the Chelsea Polytechnic, London, also takes articled pupils for two years for £50. There are several other places at which good training can be obtained. In every instance the necessary gymnastic dress and shoes have to be purchased.

Physical training is now considered so important that there is a fair demand for properly-trained teachers. Some of the large schools, especially those in the country, have a resident teacher, who probably undertakes some other duties, such as superintending the girls out of school. The salary in that case is from £40 to £50, with board and lodging. A young teacher thus gains experience, and after a few years, if she possesses a small capital—about £200—she can start classes of her own and become a visiting teacher. She must be careful to select a neighbourhood not already occupied by a good teacher, and one in which she has some connection. She should then advertise in the local papers, and send circulars to the best houses in the locality, stating terms, and giving testimonials from the parents of pupils she has taught, or referring to them. A few influential names will have great weight.

Plan-tracing.—Tracing the plans of engineers and architects affords congenial occupation to some gentlewomen who are neat and accurate, can write a small round hand, and make very clear figures. Skill in this work can be acquired by an apt pupil in four or five months, the usual training fee being £5. A tracer can earn from 4*d.* to 7*d.* an hour, or from 15*s.* to 25*s.* a week; some earn more.

The demand for tracers is limited, but is on the increase. A few large firms in London and in the north have women on their staff, and there are plan-tracing offices in London entirely in the hands of women.

Teaching (Private).—Teaching must now be regarded as a profession for which regular training is necessary. As a private governess in a family, a lady will scarcely get a good situation unless she has passed some university examination, and unless she possesses many accomplishments—fluent French and German, good music, drawing, and painting, in addition to a good knowledge of English. A residence abroad for a year or two is a great help to the private governess. A knowledge of cycling is now frequently added to a long list of qualifications.

There is no standard for the salaries of private governesses, and often when much is demanded of them the salary offered is wholly inadequate, perhaps not more than £35 or £40 a year. Still, there are conscientious employers who take into consideration the cost of the education the governess has received, and pay a liberal salary, which enables her to make some provision for old age or sickness.

A governess who is pleasant in the house, and who educates as well as teaches her pupils, is constantly recommended from one family to another, and seldom has to seek help from any registry office.

A gentlewoman often becomes a governess simply because she is left

without means and does not know how otherwise to maintain herself. Possibly in girlhood she has had a fair education, but not thinking that she would have to earn her living, she may have allowed her acquirements to lapse; having had no definite training, she can seldom rise beyond the position of a nursery governess, who has to take the entire charge of the children as well as to teach them. The salary in that case seldom exceeds £30 a year, and frequently it is not more than £20, sometimes even less. The little brown-book issued twice a year by the Governesses' Benevolent Institution, 32 Sackville Street, contains a terribly long list of candidates for the small pension granted by that institution. It shows that in the majority of cases the ladies named took up teaching because they lost their parents or homes and had to do something, and were glad to accept salaries out of which it was impossible for them to make any provision for themselves.

A private governess of forty-five or fifty can seldom get a fresh engagement, but this is not a drawback attaching to the teaching profession only.

Teaching (Kindergarten).—There is good scope for certificated kindergarten teachers in private families, in higher grade and secondary schools, and also in schools for the feeble-minded, in which this method of instruction is found to be most successful. There are many training colleges for teachers in London and in various parts of the country; a full list of these can be had at the National Froebel Union, 4 Bloomsbury Square, London. The training lasts usually about two years, during which time four examinations must be passed if the higher certificate is to be gained. This higher certificate qualifies its holder to take entire charge of a kindergarten school, the elementary certificate qualifies for a post as assistant mistress in a kindergarten, or as teacher in an elementary school or in a private family. The cost of training varies from £15 to £30 a year, according to the training college selected, and the fees for the examinations are—for the lower preliminary, 10s. 6d.; for the higher preliminary, £1, 5s.; for the elementary certificate, £1, 11s. 6d.; and for the higher certificate, parts 1 and 2, £3, 13s. 6d.

The certificates from the National Froebel Union are the only kindergarten certificates recognized by the Education Department. No candidate is allowed to sit for a certificate till she is seventeen years of age. Those who have passed any recognized public examination in English subjects, certificated teachers in public elementary schools, and pupil teachers who have gained a second class in the Queen's Scholarship Examination, are exempted from the preliminary examinations.

The salary of a kindergarten teacher is about the same as that of a high-school teacher.

Engagements may be obtained through the National Froebel Union in Bloomsbury Square, London, through the Teachers' Guild in Gower Street, London, and through agents and by advertisements.

Teaching in Schools.—Candidates for appointments as assistant teachers in schools, especially in high schools, will find it very greatly to their advantage to hold a university degree. Those who have been students at the

Maria Grey Training College for Teachers at Salisbury Road, Brondesbury, London, or who have otherwise gained certificates for teaching, will have the best chance of appointments. The qualifications vary with special cases, but a knowledge of English grammar and literature, of arithmetic, of one or more languages, and of drawing, is usually necessary. Among subjects taught are harmony, class singing, piano, drawing, advanced Latin, French, German, mathematics, natural science, and physical exercises. In all cases the teachers are ladies who have made a special study of their respective subjects.

The appointments in high schools are non-resident, and the salary of an assistant teacher ranges from £70 to £135, that of the head-mistress, of course, is very much higher. Application for an appointment as an assistant teacher or as a special teacher should be made to the head-mistress of the school in which the appointment is desired, or in the case of a company's schools it may be made to the secretary of the company, for instance, the Girls' Public Day School in Queen Anne's Gate, London, or to the Secretary of the Church Schools Company, Church House, Dean's Yard, Westminster.

At the Maria Grey Training College for Teachers there are three divisions. The upper division consists of students over eighteen years of age who have either graduated at some university or passed some equivalent examination. They must enter for one year, but sometimes they remain two years. The college fees in this division are £30 a year. The kindergarten and the lower division consist of students over eighteen who have passed either the pupils' examination at the College of Preceptors, or the senior Oxford, senior Cambridge, or some other local examination of the same standard. The course of study both in the kindergarten and lower division lasts two years, and the fees are £24 a year. Students enter the lower division on the understanding that they are to remain for the upper division course. In addition to the college fees the examination fees have to be paid by the student. About ten scholarships, differing in value, are awarded annually. Of 500 students who completed their course of training at the college 458 obtained appointments on leaving.

Situations are generally obtained through the Training College, the Teachers' Guild, or some good registry office or by advertisement.

Teaching in Schools under the Education Department.—The teachers who are recognized by the Education Department are—(1) probationers, (2) pupil teachers, (3) assistant teachers, (4) provisionally certificated teachers and women approved by the inspector as additional teachers, and, of course, the fully certificated teachers.

Probationers must not be less than thirteen years of age; they must be able to produce certificates of good health and good conduct. At fifteen or sixteen they become pupil teachers, if they can pass an examination in reading, recitation, penmanship, grammar, arithmetic, geography, and the outlines of history. A pupil teacher usually serves under a certificated teacher for four years, receiving a small salary. She must not be employed

for less than three hours or more than six in any one day, or more than twenty hours in any one week. She is required to pass an examination each year. This term of four years, however, may be reduced to three, two, or even one year, provided the candidate passes the first, second, or third year's examination on her admission, and shall have completed her eighteenth year at the end of the reduced term of service. Candidates over eighteen who are graduates of any university in the kingdom, or have passed any public examination recognized by the Education Department not more than two years previously, may become assistant teachers.

After four years' service, or the shortened terms mentioned above, a pupil teacher must pass the Queen's Scholarship Examination, and she becomes a student at a training college, or an assistant teacher, then a provisionally certificated, and finally a fully certificated teacher. Candidates for certificates must pass two examinations and undergo probation by service in a school. A teacher who has received a favourable report from the inspector obtains her parchment after eighteen months. There are some 35,000 certificated mistresses throughout the country; their salaries average about £80; from 4000 to 5000 are provided with residences rent free. In the Metropolitan District the salaries of some 900 board schoolmistresses average a little over £200, as compared with about £94, which is the average of the salaries of about 800 mistresses in voluntary schools.

HOLIDAYS.

Fifty or sixty years ago people were content to live and die in the place which gave them birth. Now this is changed. The facilities offered by steam-boat and railway travelling have caused the annual summer holiday to be regarded not merely as a luxury but as a necessity, the only question requiring consideration being "Where shall I go?" Of course the great point to be achieved is a complete change of surroundings, and, as far as possible, equally complete immunity from the hundred-and-one worries of the ordinary daily life. But the same kind of change does not suit everybody; some, for example, derive most benefit, mental and bodily, from an absolutely idle holiday, a lotus-eater's life with neither active amusement nor occupation, while to others such a way of spending the time would mean boredom and, probably, indigestion. This latter class, which is a large one, gains most good from change of interests and pursuits rather than from complete rest. In any case, however, the method of spending the holiday should be a rational one. A man leading a sedentary life for eleven months of the year should not join a party of cycling tourists determined on doing their seventy miles a day, nor should a woman whose average daily walk is half a mile choose a pedestrian tour or an Alpine expedition as her holiday relaxation.

Yachting.—There are many ways of holiday-spending which were practically non-existent a very few years ago. There are the tourist-steamers which run well-arranged trips to Norway and the Baltic in the summer, and to the Mediterranean and the West Indies in the winter, the time occupied by the cruises ranging from ten days to six months, and the fares, which include full board without wine, varying from about six guineas to £100 and upwards. Yachting is another popular modern way of spending a summer holiday, but unless the hire of a roomy boat can be afforded, and unless a servant is taken, a considerable amount of "roughing it" has to be put up with. Nevertheless for young and healthy people no more delightful form of holiday trip can be imagined. The cost ranges from £4 per week for a yacht suitable for two persons, to £9 for one which will accommodate eight. These charges cover the wages of the crew, who have, however, to be boarded by the hirer.

Cycling Tours.—On the advantages and disadvantages of the popular cycle tour there is no need to dwell; they are well known. Provided the party be carefully chosen, the route planned well, and the weather fine, the only real drawback to the enjoyment is the difficulty of luggage transport,

for few care to start on a tour of a week or more with only the bare necessities they can carry on their machines. One plan that works well is to have two complete sets of the articles required for a night's stay, and to post one of these sets made up as a parcel each day to the next sleeping-place but one, *i.e.* the things used on Monday night would be posted on Tuesday morning to the hotel where the cyclist intends to sleep on Wednesday night. Of course, for a tour extending over a week this arrangement must be supplemented by a portmanteau to be "picked up" at fixed points on the line of tour. It may be hinted, perhaps, that silk under-garments pack into a much smaller space than cotton or woollen ones, and that the best way for a lady to carry her outfit on her machine is to make a flat parcel of it, folded in a piece of thin American cloth, and to strap it either with the cape or coat to the handle-bars, or under the saddle. The ground covered should not exceed fifty or sixty miles a day.

Walking Tours.—A very pleasant holiday can be spent in the form of a walking tour along the coast, although it is more expensive than a stay in one place. A coast tour should begin at the sea-side. If the tourists—a walking tour undertaken alone is a dull business, and even a dangerous one if the road lies through a lonely district—start from an inland centre, they should travel to the sea-side by train, having previously carefully planned out the route with the aid of a good map and arranged the times and distances as far as possible. Twelve miles a day is a fair allowance for a coast walking tour, if, as is generally the case, part of the journey is over sand and shingle. A knapsack will hold the outfit absolutely necessary, but if the railway facilities are adequate, a bag or portmanteau can be sent on ahead and picked up as previously arranged. If the daily walk does not exceed the dozen miles suggested, ample time is afforded for rest and exploration of the different places on the line of route. If an inland tour is undertaken over fairly good roads, a healthy adult should be able to walk fifteen or sixteen miles a day with ease.

The Health.—When considerable exhaustion and fatigue are felt after the day's ride or walk, a hot bath, to which a little lemon-juice or ammonia has been added, will be found beneficial, especially if followed by brisk towelling. Whether travelling inland or by the sea, on foot or awheel, the tourist should remember always to wear light-weight clothing, with wool or wool and silk under-garments of open texture, to eat sparingly, and to drink as little as possible, whether of alcoholic or non-alcoholic beverages, during active exercise.

Lodgings.—The majority of middle-class people spend their summer holiday in furnished apartments or boarding-houses at the sea-side or in the country. Good lodgings in genuinely rural spots are not altogether easy to obtain. The lists issued by the various railway companies, although useful as far as they go, are nothing more than directories, the companies disclaiming any responsibility for the names given. In some of the better-class farmhouses it is possible to find comfortable accommodation, but very careful enquiry should always be made as to the cooking, drainage, and

other domestic matters. The lavender-scented sheets, the new-laid eggs, and the rosebuds peeping in at the window, which appear so attractive—on paper—to the townsman, are very poor equivalents for the lack of all the common comforts of ordinary civilization. Sometimes good rooms may be obtained in the more modern houses to be found on the outskirts of pleasant country towns, and the “paying guest” system exists more frequently and works with better results in the provinces than in towns.

The choice of a sea-side resort should be influenced in no small measure by the amount of money available for the expenses of the trip. It is a great mistake, if economy has to be considered, to select a fashionable place where the season is brief and prices are proportionately high, and to be obliged to crowd into small stuffy rooms in a dreary back street, when comfortable and ample accommodation, equally good air, and probably as much enjoyment, could be obtained at a smaller cost in a less ambitious place not twenty miles away. If there are children in the party, rooms should certainly be engaged before arrival, although an unencumbered couple can, of course, go to an hotel for a night and look round for lodgings at their leisure. If possible, unless very well recommended by friends, the lodgings should be seen before they are definitely decided upon; at any rate it is wise to engage them only for a week, hinting that if things are found satisfactory the stay will be prolonged. But this is not always feasible in very popular places where the demand for accommodation exceeds the supply.

When lodging-hunting in person it should be borne in mind that a house that smells close and stuffy should be avoided, as should one where the door-bell is not answered promptly, or where the maid is grimy and slipshod. The condition of the sanitary arrangements should not be overlooked, and it is well to observe whether the bedding is reasonably clean, while if there are children in the family, the landlady should always be asked if there has been any recent case of infectious illness in the house.

If possible, rooms should be secured which have an eastern or southern aspect. With an eastern aspect the full benefit of the morning sun will be obtainable, and this is an important point.

Prices of accommodation vary in different classes of sea-side resorts. Perhaps, broadly, the charges at a fairly popular place average about a guinea a room in the season. That is to say, a medium-sized sitting-room and one double bed-room in a house on or close to the sea-front will cost £2, 2s. a week. Attendance is supposed to be included in the rent, but unless the tenant insists on inclusive terms, the weekly account often contains such “extras” as 2s. 6d. or 3s. 6d. for kitchen-fire, 6d. for hall-gas, 1d. or 2d. a pair for boot-cleaning, 3d. each person for “cruets”, and other sums for washing bed and table linen. It is much better to pay at a rather higher rate than to have these unexpected additions to the bill.

Boarding-houses.—Overworked and worried people will find the regularity of boarding-house life and the freedom from the cares of house-keeping highly conducive to the return of mental and bodily health, provided, of course, that they choose their boarding-house with some discrimination.

One of the advantages a boarding-house has over ordinary apartments is that the visitor knows precisely what his weekly bill will be, whereas, in apartments where the lodgers cater for themselves, the cost of living depends largely not only on the honesty of the landlady, but on her capabilities of making the best and most of the food which her lodgers buy. The terms charged at a sea-side boarding-house vary from 30s. to £3, 3s. a week per head, according to the town, situation of house, and style of accommodation provided. There are, as a rule, no extras, except perhaps a charge for the use of the bath-room, but even this is not very common.

Furnished Houses.—In certain circumstances it is cheaper to hire a furnished house than lodgings. Residents by the sea are sometimes glad to let their houses in the summer, and from careful tenants with unimpeachable references will frequently accept a low rent. Then again, if the family desiring a visit to the sea is large, it is often possible to find a school to let for the vacation at a nominal rental. The sanitation and general equipment of such residences is usually superior to those of ordinary lodging-houses. In such cases the tenants must provide their own attendance, a course not always convenient, but sometimes the servants belonging to the house can be temporarily engaged. The use of plate and linen is not generally included in the rental. When taking or letting a furnished house, an inventory should be made out and a formal agreement drawn up, even though the tenancy may be but for one month.

If it is not considered necessary to seek diversion in new quarters every holiday, it is a good plan to rent a small cottage in some pleasant village, inland or on the coast, and to furnish it plainly but comfortably. If the locality is well chosen, such a cottage may often be let during part, at any rate, of the time when it is not wanted by the tenant himself. If it cannot be let, a respectable couple can easily be found who will look after it and keep it clean and aired in return for the use of a couple of rooms rent free, and perhaps the produce of the garden. The cost of renting and keeping up a cottage will not amount to much more than that of a month or six weeks' stay at a fashionable watering-place.

Sea Bathing.—Chief among the attractions of a sea-side holiday is that of bathing. On no account, however, should this be indulged in without due regard to health. Persons with weak hearts should avoid bathing more than twice during the week, and should not bathe at all unless weather and water are warm. A sudden chill or an unexpected shock resulting from immersion is not infrequently fatal. Many robust persons are liable to headaches after bathing; a pinch of salt placed on the tongue and allowed to dissolve gradually is a good remedy. A feeling of enervation habitually experienced after bathing must be taken as a warning that the practice is harmful, and should be discontinued.

The best time at which to bathe is the early morning, but it is unwise to enter the water if the stomach is empty. A common opinion is, that a "pick-me-up" is beneficial just previous to a bath, but this is a mistake; all stimulants should be avoided. Some persons suffer from

numbness in the hands and feet on entering the water. This is usually due to defective circulation, or to bathing too soon after meals. Brisk rubbing of the affected parts is a simple and effective remedy. Bathing after a heavy meal is most dangerous; an interval of two hours at the least should be allowed. From five to fifteen minutes is really a sufficiently long period for anyone in ordinary health to remain in the water. It is never safe to go far out from the shore when the tide is on the ebb; even the most powerful swimmers have found it impossible to make progress against a strong tide. Diving from or swimming near piers should be avoided, as there is invariably a strong eddy round them. When a bather is seized with cramp, he should at once call for assistance, even though it be but a slight attack. A brisk towelling upon emerging from the water is most beneficial and invigorating.

Water-polo and similar aquatic games are very enjoyable, but they involve too great exertion and far too protracted immersion for those whose desire in bathing is to secure a share of the delights and health-giving results of an open-sea dip.

Trunks.—Travelling trunks should be as good of their kind as can possibly be afforded. If really first-rate leather portmanteaux cannot be indulged in, it is advisable to avoid imitations, and to be content with the cheaper trunks covered with black-varnished canvas, or even with those of painted iron, which, if not ornamental, are at any rate strong and serviceable. The flat regulation cabin-trunks are better than the dome-topped dress baskets where space of stowage has to be considered, as they can be placed one on top of another, pushed under bedsteads—a bad plan, but sometimes inevitable in lodgings—or turned into comfortable seats with the aid of a folded rug as mattress, a cretonne cover, and a couple of the very inexpensive vegetable-down cushions, which can be squeezed into a corner of the trunk for the journey. A useful basket-trunk woven of Japanese grass is in considerable favour among holiday travellers. It can be bought at any bag and portmanteau establishment, and costs, including its leather straps, from 2s. upwards. A basket-trunk, 18 inches by 12 inches by 10 inches for instance, can be obtained for 3s. There are no hinges to this useful contrivance, which is in two parts, one fitting over the other, a fact that has gained for it the name of “telescope”. Although the depth of the three-shilling basket-trunk is only 10 inches when completely closed, it can be increased considerably by packing the lower part until its contents rise some inches above the top. These baskets are neat, durable, and light as well as inexpensive, and in smaller sizes are exceedingly convenient for cycling.

A serviceable box can be easily made by any carpenter or joiner, if a tour with frequent changes of residence is decided on as a holiday. It is in form like an ordinary box, with the lid fixed, and one side hinged at the bottom so as to permit of its being dropped down. Inside are two, three, and four shelves or drawers. Anything that is wanted can thus be obtained from the box without turning over the whole of its contents. It is, in fact, a miniature chest-of-drawers with a lock-up hinged door.

For ladies who desire to take with them several hats or bonnets, nothing can be more convenient than the box shown in the illustration (Fig. 619). By its means, six hats can be packed in a small compass, an important consideration, and if they are properly fixed there should not be the slightest risk of injury to their trimming. One hat may be pinned inside the lid, another to the bottom of the box, and one to each side, pads being provided for the purpose. The case is made of strong material bound with leather, and the lid is secured both by a lock and by straps. This box is very cheap, and is particularly convenient for ladies who like frequent changes in head-gear.

A soiled-linen bag of waterproof canvas, with lock and key, is a valuable adjunct to travel-equipment, and is, indeed, an essential one when the holiday is to be spent in a cruise, whether in a private yacht or a tourist steamer.

Packing.—The perfect packer is born, not made, yet much may be learnt by experience. Heavy things such as boots, each pair in a neat

holland bag, and books, should be placed at the bottom of the trunk, and wedged quite tight with such soft things as stockings and vests. When this layer has been made fairly solid and quite flat, the linen may be placed on top, and then the dress-skirts and the coats carefully folded with sheets of tissue-paper between the folds, the bodices and blouses. Finally, a neat sheet of holland or art-linen is placed over the contents of the box, and tucked well down all round. Bottles, hand-mirrors, and other breakable things will travel quite safely if packed among the soft things, but as an extra precaution they may have cases of wadded pongee or sateen made for them. Parasols may be put in the trunk, not too near the top, if it is long enough to take them. If they are to travel separately, they should be provided with a holland or coloured-linen case.

The outfit of wearing apparel should be as small as possible, for a large amount of luggage is a nuisance, especially when it is divided into many little lots, bandboxes, bags, and paper parcels, without which some ladies

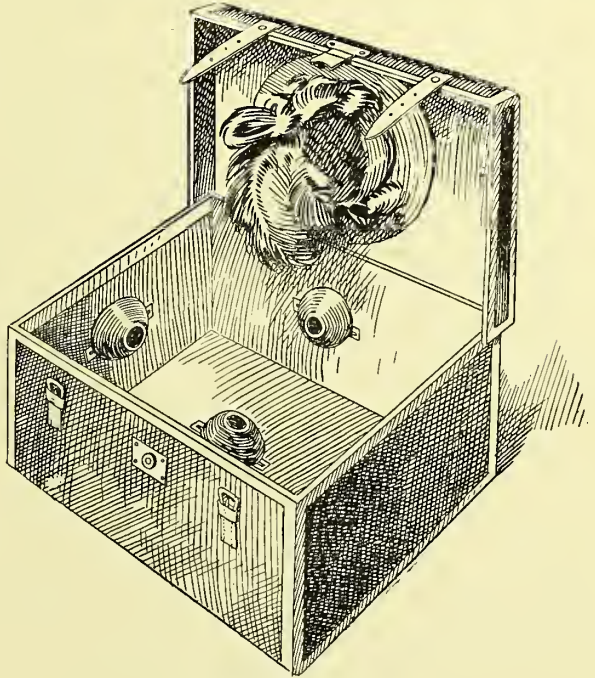


Fig. 619.—Bonnet-box

seem to be unable to travel. Still, the changeable ways of our climate have to be considered, and sufficient warm wraps must be taken for all emergencies. Above all, the clothes selected should be suitable.

If the holiday is to be spent in ordinary lodgings, the luggage may include with advantage a small stock of serviettes, linen pillow-slips, and bath-towels of respectable size and texture.

All trunks should be carefully locked, strapped, and labelled, the nicest kind of labels being leather tallies, with the owner's initials stamped on the back. A small bag containing necessities for the journey, and for the first night, if the destination will not be reached until a late hour, may be taken into the railway-carriage, but the habit some people have of filling up the compartment with huge boxes and baskets, hold-alls, and bundles of wraps as big as feather-beds, cannot be too strongly condemned.

If there is any considerable quantity of luggage, it may be sent on a day previously, most railway companies having special and moderate terms for "passenger's luggage sent in advance". Very large quantities, however, should be sent by quick goods-train. Most railway companies will convey luggage from house to station and *vice versa* at a charge of about 6*d.* per package.

CHRISTMAS AND OTHER FESTIVALS.

Christmas.—Christmas will always keep its place as the head and chief of all the yearly festivities. Among the ancient Britons, the time of the winter solstice, when the sun turned his face again to earth and the short days began to lengthen, was kept with extravagant joy. One of the ceremonies was the cutting of the mistletoe, which was done by the Druids with golden knives. The early Church transformed the Pagan to a Christian festival, and the darkest days of the year are now made beautiful with sacred thoughts, with holy incentives to peace and love, keeping besides the ancient associations of mirth and cheerfulness.

Christmas Decorations.—The Yule log, the boar's head, and great boughs of holly and yew represented mediæval ideas of celebrating Christmas. Modern times preserve the same spirit in more refined forms. Guests are added to most family circles, but perhaps hosts do not always realize what a warmth is given to the welcome by the red berries on the walls and by the observance of old Christmas rites. There is a glow and geniality in all Christmas customs that cheer and brighten young and old.

Many housewives object to Christmas decorations, fearing that the furniture and paper may become scratched and spoiled. The decorators should bear this fear in mind, for beauty at Christmas will not pay for ugliness all the year round. Holly, the very prettiest and most Christmas-like of all adornments, does undoubtedly scratch and tear; it is therefore best used chiefly in bouquets for jars and vases. In this way it can be scattered about the room very effectively, and can also be kept in water. People are apt to imagine that holly, as an evergreen, needs no nourishment; but, like all other plants, it lasts twice as long if kept moist. Very pretty decorations can be made of the berries and leaves by pulling them off the stems and sewing them in various designs on strips of paper, but the berries so used turn black quickly. Persons who spend much time over decoration often preserve mountain ash or other berries in salt and water for use at Christmas.

Ivy is the safest, because the softest, of leaf decorations for walls; and ivy leaves sewn, one leaf overlapping the other, on strips of paper, make a very effective bordering for pictures or doorways. Laurel leaves, both green and variegated, and the leaves of evergreens, can be used for the same purpose. Another scheme for the walls is to cut out various shapes in stiff brown paper or cardboard, and to sew sprays of greenery on them. Crescents, shields, and banners are among the most effective patterns. The

border should always be of smooth leaves, ivy or laurel; but in the centre sprays of holly, yew, fir, golden euonymus, or red-leaved bramble may be introduced. A tasteful designer can invent many striking combinations. If a string is sewn on to the paper at the back, these designs can be hung on the walls instead of above or under pictures. A good decorative effect is produced by removing some of the ordinary knick-knacks of a room and replacing them with articles specially made for Christmas. High-handled baskets filled with moss and holly look pretty on the tables, and for the usual brackets fresh ones made of green twigs can be substituted. Any

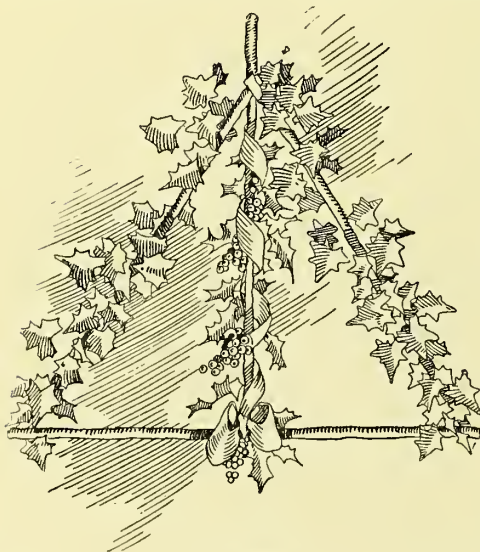


Fig. 620.

boy or girl with a taste for carpentering can construct these. Four sticks or flat pieces of wood are necessary. (See fig. 620.) Two meet in a V shape at the back, one goes across the top of the V, and from this a centre longer piece comes down a little beyond the point of the V. The wood is firmly nailed together, and ivy or other evergreens tied or twined round every piece. For the centre bar holly is admissible, as there it can scratch nothing. The wood may be gilded and allowed to shine through; or, if red berries are scarce, knots of red ribbon may be tied among the leaves. In fact, these evergreen brackets give scope for endless

variety. They may be hung safely from a nail by a loop of cord at the back.

Christmas parties are often so large that some unfurnished room is used, or a hall or gallery is temporarily turned to new use; in the country sometimes a barn is hastily fitted up. The bare walls in this case need quick and cheap decoration. If it is not too expensive, nothing is so effective as covering them with pink sateen, lightly tin-tacked on, with hanging garlands of green upon it; or pink crepon paper might be put on instead of sateen. But if something yet simpler is needed, let the walls be left bare, and place at regular intervals the crescents and shields of green sprays mentioned above, and the evergreen brackets. The coloured pictures from Christmas numbers of magazines and other periodicals with borders of ivy leaves have quite a handsome effect used amongst these; and if further touches of colour are desired, half a dozen or more of old Christmas-cards tacked together in a sort of crazy patchwork style in pretty shapes look extremely well.

Mottoes are an old-fashioned form of decoration, but very appropriate for bare rooms, and also for dining-rooms and halls. The most effective are





OF ENTRANCE HALL

those with letters cut out in thick white wadding, gummed or tacked on to crimson paper or cloth. The letters should be large and bold, so as to be read at a glance. In these things the simplest devices are often the best. Letters cut from crimson, blue, or gold paper on a white background are always pretty. (See figs. 621, 622, 624, 625.) An old-fashioned kind of wafer, used in the days before envelopes had gummed flaps, and still perhaps procurable at some stationers', formed an excellent material for motto-making, being very easily arranged and most striking in their variety of hue. The wafers were round, of every colour, and adhesive when damped.



Fig. 621.

Holly should, of course, be in evidence on the Christmas dinner-table. The sprays may be tucked among the dishes of fruit, and appear in a high vase on the top of the epergne, and also in low vases along the border of the table-centre. A strip of scarlet silk or sateen, edged with white wadding, on which are scattered white glass beads dipped in gum to make them adhere, may be substituted for the everyday table-centre. The serviettes may be tied with fanciful bows of narrow scarlet ribbon, the true Christmas colour. Wax candles in ivy-wreathed candlesticks lend much beauty to the table.

Christmas Festivities.—From Christmas decorations to Christmas-trees is a natural step. Though said to be introduced into England only during Queen Victoria's reign, the Christmas-tree has taken firm root in every household where there are children. Towards the end of December in most florists' shops are to be seen the short, sturdy firs, which are the popular shrubs for the purpose. A small one costs about four shillings. In Germany, the birthplace of the Christmas-tree, flowers and tapers are its chief adornment. The lighted tree stands in the middle of the family sitting-room, and round it on small tables lie the Christmas gifts, one for each person. But in England the trees generally bear more substantial fruit. Bon-bons, toys, dolls, baskets of sweets, are all appropriate, so long as each article shows up brightly or glitters against the dark background of the boughs. Too costly gifts should be avoided; children are only spoiled

by being accustomed to expensive presents, which, moreover, form a heavy tax on the hostess's purse. A good plan is to have every article of the same value. This prevents all jealousy among the young folk. Any toy-shop proprietor will furnish a supply of pretty articles at sixpence or a shilling in great variety. If home-made gifts are preferred, dolls, pin-cushions, muslin bags of sweets and nuts, give unfailing pleasure to the

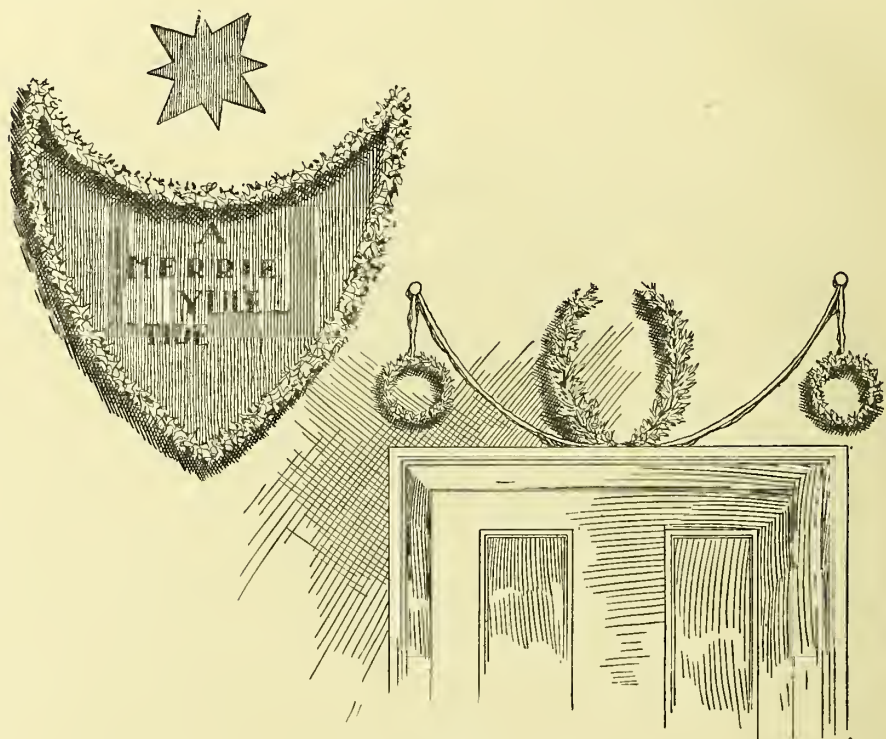


Fig. 622.

little recipients; while ribbon bows, strings of bright beads, loose braided chains of gilt or silver paper, will light up the boughs. To fix the tiny tapers on the tree is always a difficult task. The best way is to push large strong pins through the twigs, with the point upwards, and impale the candles on these.

If a Christmas-tree is not procurable, a pretty substitute may be made in the following way. Take strong wire, and with it form three hoops, one smaller than the other two. Put the latter inside one of the others, and suspend the third from them. Cover these hoops with evergreen, and then hang the toys and ornaments upon them. The whole thing can be suspended from a hook or from the chandelier. If from the latter, surround the gas-globes with green, and hang Chinese lanterns on the branches of the chandelier.

The old Christmas snap-dragon is well liked by children. Raisins, dates, figs, and prunes are heaped together in a china bowl or dish, and gin

or brandy is poured over them and set alight. The gas should be lowered when this is done, and the scene then presented is very pretty, the children snatching boldly for the burning fruit by the blue light of the spirit flames.

Christmas is usually kept as a family festival, and old-fashioned games in which young and old can join are the most appropriate. In fact, a too-elaborate entertainment is out of place on Christmas-day.

Christmas Fare.—Christmas has always had its own fare, almost too well known to describe. In many households the week before the twenty-fifth Sunday of Trinity is marked, according to old custom, by the making of plum-puddings. These are supposed to become mellowed if prepared some time before cooking, as the materials then become thoroughly blended. Old-fashioned housewives used to make at one Christmas-tide the pudding that was to be eaten the next; but this seems pushing the principle too far. The following is a good recipe:—

Take three-quarters of a pound of fine bread crumbs, four ounces of sifted flour, a tea-spoonful of salt, three-quarters of a pound of chopped suet, one pound each of picked raisins and currants, six ounces of fine chopped candied peel, and four ounces of moist sugar. Add as much new milk as will make these ingredients into a paste. Beat four eggs (eight if the pudding is to be very rich), and stir these thoroughly in with, if liked, a wine-glass of brandy. Put all into a well-greased basin, cover with a buttered paper, and tie tightly with a thick pudding-cloth. Then boil for seven or eight hours; and on the day it is needed boil again for two hours. This pudding should be large enough for twelve or fourteen persons.

Brandy sauce may be eaten with the Christmas pudding, or cream, or custard, as taste dictates. Thin strips of blanched almonds stuck over the pudding improve its look and taste. In some counties rice-pudding accompanies the plum-pudding. Children will regard the pudding with the more pleasure if, besides being decorated with the orthodox sprig



Fig. 623.—Plum-pudding surrounded by lighted Wax Candles.

of holly in the middle, it comes to table surrounded by a ring of coloured wax tapers (fig. 623). These are placed on a dish-paper, to which they are made to adhere by applying strong gum, or by warming their own lower ends till they melt a little. To deposit the smoking pudding among these

requires some care; the candles, of course, should not be lighted till this is done.

Mince-meat is another Christmas dish which must be prepared some time beforehand. To make an excellent mince-meat, take one pound of beef suet chopped as fine as oatmeal, one pound of cleaned currants, the same of chopped raisins, the same of moist sugar, one and a half pound of chopped apples, and six ounces of finely-shred candied peel. Moisten with new milk and a little brandy. After the ingredients are well mixed, put them away in a jar with brandy, paper this over, and tie tightly down.

Roast turkey is pre-eminently a Christmas dish, though comparatively of modern usage. Roasted swans and peacocks were the chief items in a mediæval Christmas menu. A medium-sized turkey is best, as the very

large ones are apt to be coarse. After careful plucking, singeing, and wiping, the breast should be filled with a seasoning composed of bread crumbs, milk, butter, lemon-juice, pepper, salt, and all-spice. Enough seasoning should be made, not only to stuff the bird, but also to furnish in addition eight or ten forcemeat balls. Rub the bird with flour, and baste it well with butter all the time while it is roasting. Garnish the dish on which it is served with the forcemeat balls, and with chestnuts boiled in their skins and then peeled, and hang a chain of fried sausages round the turkey. Bread-sauce should accompany it.

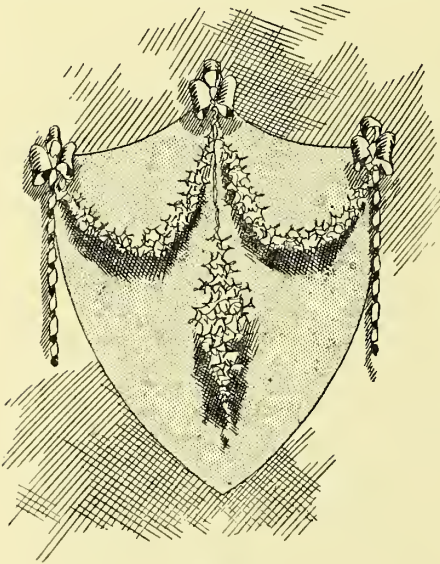


Fig 624.

For the youngsters who look for a Christmas cake the following is a somewhat unusual recipe. Take half a pound of butter, the same of sugar, a pound of flour, a pound of currants, three ounces of candied peel, three eggs, a little nutmeg, and a quarter of a pint of warm milk. Work the butter into the flour, then add the warm milk, and then the other ingredients. Mix these, and put in a tea-spoonful of volatile salts. Beat for a quarter of an hour, and bake at once.

The foregoing is a cake too tender to bear the process of icing, but old-fashioned pound-cake is well adapted for the purpose. In this the butter, flour, sugar, plums, each weigh a pound, with as many eggs as the housewife's purse will allow. Ready-made icing, which needs only to be washed with white of egg and will then adhere to the cake, may be procured from some confectioners. To make a plain icing, take a pound of loaf-sugar, the whites of four eggs, an ounce of fine starch, and, if required, some finely-chopped almonds. Beat the eggs to a froth, reduce sugar and starch to the

finest powder, and gradually add almonds, sugar, and starch to the eggs. Beat this paste as smooth as possible, and spread it with a spoon or knife-blade over the top of the cake when it comes warm from the oven. Then replace the cake in the oven for a minute or two to dry. Crystallized fruits, pink sugar-almonds, or small figures such as Father Christmas, may be arranged on the top of the cake while the icing is still soft.

New Year.—New-year's Eve and New-year's Day are more observed in Scotland, where the latter is a public holiday, than in England. In France, gifts are more general at New Year than at Christmas, and all friends far and near keep up their acquaintance by at least an exchange of visiting-cards by post. In Germany, too, greeting-cards are reserved for New Year entirely. The festival, however, has some observance in England. New-year's Eve parties should be arranged to last till after twelve o'clock, at which hour silence reigns for a few minutes so that the clocks may be heard striking and the church bells proclaiming the birth of the new year, after which all present exchange good wishes.



Fig. 625.

Shrove Tuesday.—Shrove Tuesday, the last festival before Lent commences, is celebrated by the making of pancakes, of which the penitents shriven by the priests in former times were supposed to partake. An old superstition said that the maiden who could fry and toss a pancake without breaking it would see her future husband come past the house directly after. Maidens who wish to try their fate will find the following recipe useful:—

Make a light batter of flour, eggs, milk, and salt; beat this with a wooden spoon till freed from every knot, and add currants or apples (finely chopped) or cinnamon or almonds, according to the flavour wished. Put some pure lard in a clean frying-pan and pour in a thin layer of the batter; fry, carefully watching to see that it browns nicely. When the under side is done, turn quickly with a knife or spoon in order that the other side may be cooked. As soon as it is fried place each pancake on a hot dish, sift white sugar over it, roll the two sides up, and keep hot till served. If snow is on the ground, a basinful of clean snow added to the batter makes it wonderfully light.

Good Friday.—On Good Friday rigid church-goers order only salt fish and egg-sauce instead of meat. More appetizing to most will be that other dish characteristic of the festival, the hot-cross buns. If anyone would like to make them at home, the following is a recipe:—

Take two pounds and a half of sifted flour, a little salt, three ounces of white sugar, three ounces of candied peel cut fine, and ten ounces of currants. Mix with the above an ounce of German yeast and three-quarters of a pound of butter or lard, and a little milk. Knead this into dough, set it to rise in a warm place, and then make it into buns. Set these to rise again before the fire for a few minutes, and then bake. The cross is formed by gashing them with a knife before baking. A little turmeric added to them gives a fine yellow hue, or saffron may be used. Wash the buns over, when baked, with a little beer or milk or white of egg to make them shiny.

Easter.—The fashion of Easter eggs comes from the Continent. The egg is appropriate at Easter-time as a symbol of waking life. German children are accustomed on Easter morning to find these eggs hidden in all sorts of queer places, and much enjoy the search for them. English children are always pleased when the custom is followed here. Plain hard-boiled eggs are used, and the shells should be coloured, or otherwise decorated. Logwood chips in the water they are boiled in make the eggs red, coffee grounds make them brown, and onion peelings yellow. The eggs can also be boiled first and painted after.

Besides eggs to be eaten at the breakfast-table, many kinds of Easter eggs are used. Cakes and jellies moulded in egg-shells are appropriate, or eggs can be made of cardboard or stiff silk and filled with sweets or tiny toys.

Hallowe'en.—Hallowe'en parties are held on the last day of October, and many mysterious rites are connected with them. Young men and maidens are the appropriate guests, for nearly all Hallowe'en customs hinge on possible matrimony. Before the glowing fire a nut is put down to roast, christened with someone's name in the thoughts of the person who places it. Then the old rhyme is repeated—

“If you love me, spit and fly;
If you hate me, lie and die”.

The behaviour of the nut decides this momentous question. Two nuts put down together represent the future of a couple. Burning steadily side by side, they denote calm and happy wedded life. But if one starts away from the other, no marriage will unite the young pair. A maiden who wishes to know something of her future spouse should eat a salt herring in three bites and drink nothing afterwards; she will then dream of the husband to come. She may also take a looking-glass and walk with it backwards to some lonely spot, then sit down in front of it, comb her hair, and eat an apple, during which process the face of her lover will, it is said, appear to her in the glass. The reader who desires to know more of Hallowe'en customs had better read Burns's poem on the subject, where all the fun and frolic appropriate to the season are faithfully described.

THE COMING OUT OF A DAUGHTER.

When a young girl leaves school a new world opens before her, a new education begins. Besides the laws of country and of religion there are others which she must learn—the laws of society, which are ever changing, ever widening their borders, though their object is always the same:—To procure for each by the assistance of all the highest possible good.

This is why, at the beginning of the twentieth century, we recognize in the “woman of the world” to-day only another form of the “great lady” or “chatelaine” of the past. No one is so well qualified to undertake the social education of a daughter as a wise mother; her eyes discover what another’s would fail to see. She knows that it is advisable to prepare her daughter little by little for whatever station may be hers in life, and not to thrust her with brusqueness into a world of which she is as ignorant as a child.

In France, the country so justly distinguished for its perfect knowledge of the rules of politeness, or *savoir faire*, it was customary in the eighteenth century for a young girl of high birth to finish her education with the study of a book of social observances entitled, “*Civilité puerile et honnête*”. A very great lady in those days, celebrated, even in France, for her wit, talent, and beauty, declared that to it she was most indebted for the perfecting of her education. The book is still preserved.

Nevertheless a mother should not stiffen her daughter by too many worldly lessons, nor give so much importance to little things that in her fear of being found wanting a girl becomes a self-conscious creature, so alarmed in manner that she is alarming herself. Self-unconsciousness is her greatest charm, and constant fault-finding will surely rob her of it. She should be natural, and this she cannot be unless she is perfectly true. It is the very self-unconsciousness of childhood that makes a child’s every attitude so full of grace and beauty.

For this reason, in order to acquire ease, a girl should be allowed to assist at small receptions at home, where she will have many opportunities of helping her mother and gaining experience herself. If she notices a neglected guest (a hostess should never devote herself exclusively to anyone), she should draw her into conversation.

Conversation.—A voice ever “soft, gentle, and low”, is, says Shakespeare, “an excellent thing in woman”. It is also a great natural gift; but if a girl is, unfortunately, born with a harsh voice, much may be done

to render it harmonious. She should accustom herself to speak softly but distinctly.

A very necessary qualification is, to be able to listen unmoved to any solecism or absurdity. Ignorance, like poverty, is often merely an accident of birth; there is no more excuse for ridiculing the one than the other. To listen attentively is another great qualification, and enhances the talent of those who speak well. Part of the art of conversation consists in helping others to make their thoughts understood, and the sympathetic listener is enabled to say the right word at the right moment. Observe also, that it is a greater talent to listen with patience when one is bored than with pleasure when one is entertained. Though irksome, it is not without its reward, for it is the right road to attain that charm of manner which so many envy and so few possess.

A Graceful Carriage.—There are many simple ways in which a girl may acquire a graceful carriage. One is, to observe the movements of some really good actress, and afterwards practise them in her own room in front of a large mirror. One of the most graceful walkers in England confessed that she always moves to the rhythm of a song which she sings mentally as she moves along; and one can quite believe it, for hers is the poetry of motion. A well-known peeress whose daughters all have charming figures, accustomed them while still in the school-room to carry heavy books on their heads. When in India, she had noticed the upright figures of the natives, who always carry heavy baskets in this manner, and this suggested to her the novel and excellent exercise. Archery, tennis, golf, cycling, and riding all tend to improve the figure.

Good dancing lessons, fencing, and gymnastics counteract inelegancies, whereas a girl who never exercises her muscles can never walk well.

Dress.—A girl's dress is so much a matter of taste, and fashions change so often, that it would be useless to particularize. However, a few general rules on the subject may be of use.

In the morning, even in town during the season, her dress cannot be too simple. It is necessary that she should appear fresh, not smart. In the afternoon a more elaborate costume is allowable, but it depends very much on the occasion. Tailor-made gowns are almost indispensable for travelling; but in the country and at the sea-side, in hot weather, cottons, foulards, and pretty muslins may be worn. Heavy silks, satins, and brocades are entirely out of place on young girls, except in masquerade.

A girl should be as well dressed as her circumstances permit. There is no occasion to go to Bond Street or Regent Street for everything she wears; though to buy things at good shops is always an economy in the end.

A little vanity is permissible, as it shows a legitimate desire to please. "Woman's work", says Ruskin, "is first to please people." Besides, it flatters the self-love of others; and a want of care in the little things about her person may prejudice a girl for life.

Her First Ball.—To introduce a girl into society it is usual for her

parents to give either a ball or reception. If they live in London or any other town, they often hire a room or set of rooms for the purpose. Indeed, it is becoming the exception for large parties to be held at one's private house, as this involves a vast amount of trouble, to say nothing about damage to furniture. When the entertainment is given elsewhere, the suppers, dinners, and teas are all arranged by caterers at so much a head, so that the actual labour is confined to the issuing of invitations, and if the expense is slightly greater in the case of hired rooms, it can at least be accurately calculated beforehand. Still, most people are obliged to entertain their friends on a smaller scale, and in their case, no doubt, it is more convenient and less ostentatious to keep to their own houses.

Her Ball Dress.—It is usual at a ball for a girl to have her shoulders and arms uncovered, and to wear long gloves that reach above the elbow, a fan and flowers being carried in her hand. At her first ball she is generally dressed in white, but this is merely a matter of taste. There is really no need for her to have her shoulders and arms uncovered. A high bodice may be worn if she is delicate, or if she unfortunately has pointed shoulders and angular elbows.

Chaperons.—If she goes to a ball not given by her parents, it is necessary, if they cannot take her, to ask some lady to act the part of chaperon. She must accompany her chaperon into the room, and even if they do not go together to the house, she must wait in the cloak-room until the elder lady's arrival. She should strive to let her chaperon see that she is cognisant of the kindness conferred upon her; for it is not always a pleasant office, nor one that is appreciated. She should show her the same attention as she would her own mother, returning to her after each dance, or at any rate going back to her as often as possible, and in every way deferring to her wishes and conforming to her hours.

At the Ball.—In taking a girl to her first ball it is a good plan to make up a party, with as many dancing men as possible. At most balls they are in the minority; and it is painful to see a young girl, or indeed any girl, condemned to remain a wallflower. It is a triumph for her to have plenty of partners, and to be able to declare that she has not sat out a single dance; but this is rarely the lot of any, unless she is in some way distinguished by position, beauty, or excellence in dancing.

Some girls say "Thank you" when a gentleman asks them to dance, but this is quite unnecessary, as a lady confers a favour when she accepts a gentleman as her partner. That the converse is the opinion, too many young men unfortunately show by their manner of asking for a dance.

A girl must not dance too often with the same man, however much she may prefer him as a partner. Should she refuse to dance she must do so pleasantly: "Thank you, but I'm engaged for this dance", or "Thank you, but I'm tired and am not going to dance this time". If she refuses without the plea of a previous engagement, she must not dance with anyone else, but remain seated during the valse or quadrille which she has refused. Should the gentleman with whom she has refused to dance ask her again to

do so later in the evening, she must not refuse a second time unless she has really some serious reason. She must be very careful not to confuse her engagements, and thoughtlessly accept two partners for the same dance. Should, however, such an incident occur, she must endeavour to extricate herself as gracefully as possible. To avoid giving offence, she may offer to deprive herself of the pleasure of dancing with either of them. In this case one of them is certain to withdraw his claim, but she must carefully avoid showing to either the slightest preference.

When, after a dance, her partner has conducted her to her place, he and she bow slightly to each other, and he at once leaves her. No man accustomed to the usages of good society would linger, as it prevents other men from approaching who may wish to ask her to dance. Some girls sit out dances with their partners instead of dancing them. This is most incorrect.

PRESENTATION AT COURT.

If it is decided that a girl should be presented at Court, the question arises—by whom? The natural person is her mother, who, if she has herself been presented since her marriage, has only to write to the Lord Chamberlain at his office, St. James's Palace, saying that she proposes to attend a particular Drawing Room and to present her daughter. In due course she receives presentation cards, two for herself and two for her daughter. If, however, the list for that day happens to be full, the names are put down for the next Drawing Room. Should the mother not have been presented on her marriage, she can be presented first by some friend, and then herself present her daughter. If the services of a friend at Court, or of one who has the "entrée", can be secured, it will be very much pleasanter for the *débutante*, as she will escape the tedious wait in the carriage, and the accompanying remarks of the assembled spectators, which are usually very trying.

However well a girl dances, or her mother imagines she dances, and however well in consequence she may be supposed to be initiated into the mysteries of what is required when she enters the Royal presence, it is absolutely necessary for her to have a few presentation lessons beforehand from some competent master or mistress. The awkwardness of the average English girl in getting through her curtsy is proverbial.

Court Dress.—Court dress is the most beautiful dress in the world, and rightly so, for the wearer is going to meet her Sovereign. The shoulders and arms must be uncovered, unless an order is obtained from the Lord Chamberlain permitting her to wear a less *décolleté* style; but this is rarely applied for, no one wishing to appear singular.

To obtain a Court dress perfect in every detail, it should be entrusted to some good firm who make the subject a study; but where circumstances do not allow of this, some clever dressmaker may be found to carry out

quite nicely any ideas suggested. In choosing a dress for a presentation, white is requisite, and the train should be of richer and more substantial material than the dress itself. Formerly trains were worn depending from the waist, but this fashion was neither so becoming nor so graceful as the train fastened to the shoulder, and has not, except in a few instances, been revived.

As a sketch of a Court gown suitable for a young *débutante*, one might choose a skirt of white satin, ornamented with *bouillonnes* of white tulle and bows of white satin ribbon, or bunches of white roses or tufts of heather. The bodice should be made perfectly plain, trimmed with either tulle or chiffonette put on full, with a bunch of the same flowers on one shoulder. If preferred, it may be of the same material as the train, but the other is more simple. The train must be lined with either plain or glacé silk, and the edge finished with a rucheing of the same; while on one side, well up in the corner, festoons of white tulle or chiffonette, with clusters of white roses or heather fastened with white satin ribbon, will give an elegant finish. Unless the train be fully three yards in length there is not sufficient material to convert it into a dinner-gown, which is the ultimate use of a Court train. It is possible that in the near future more diaphanous material may be used for trains; but it is not so as yet.

Plumes must be worn. The arrangement of them and of the hair should be done either by a good hair-dresser or maid accustomed to Court hair-dressing. And this is of so much importance, that someone has wittily said of Society ladies, "By their heads shall ye know them".

Going to a Drawing Room.—If the *débutante's* parents have no carriage of their own, their best plan is to hire from a good livery stable a one-horse brougham with coachman and footman, the inclusive charge for which should not exceed two pounds. To get into the line of carriages it is necessary to start quite an hour before the time fixed for the Drawing Room. Care must be taken not to crush the train; it should be carefully folded, or rather gathered together, and kept in front.

On arrival at the palace one of the cards is given up in the corridor; the other is retained to be given to the Lord Chamberlain. With her train on her arm, the *débutante*, with her mother or friend, proceeds to the Waiting Room. The rooms in which the ladies wait are the "Ball Room", the "Dining Room", the "Blue Drawing Room", and the "Yellow Drawing Room". Those who have the "entrée" go straight into the "Blue" and "Yellow" Drawing Rooms; the others wait in any of the other rooms mentioned till their turn comes. To reach the "Throne Room" they have to cross the "Picture Gallery", and as they do so their trains are put down.

In the Throne Room.—The Groom "in waiting" receives the cards and hands them to the Lord "in waiting", who passes them on to the Vice-Chamberlain. Finally they reach the Lord Chamberlain, who stands at the right hand of the Queen, and he reads out the names. This is the critical moment. Every eye in the Royal Circle, as well

as in the *corps diplomatique* (critical gentlemen from every court in Europe), is fixed on the débutante as she advances to pay her homage to her Queen. The glove must be removed beforehand, and the Queen's extended hand, laid on the back of the débutante's, is raised to her lips as she makes her curtsy. If the Princess of Wales or any other princess holds the Drawing Room for Her Majesty there is no kissing of hands, merely the curtsy, which is always repeated in slighter form to all the members of the Royal Circle present.

One of the Gentlemen Ushers, who stand in a group opposite the Queen, places the train on the débutante's arm after she has passed by, and she backs out as gracefully as may be; not a difficult thing to do, as attention is already fixed on the next comer.

The footman now calls the carriage, and the débutante and her mother, or the friend who has represented her, are driven on to one or more of the teas so much in vogue, where those who have attended the Drawing Room have an opportunity of exhibiting themselves to their friends, and criticising and admiring each others' trains.

A WEDDING.

I. IN ENGLAND.

Marriage in England is regarded as merely a civil contract entered into by a man and woman by means of certain prescribed forms. This contract is held to be valid whatever misrepresentations may have been made by either party with regard to social or financial position or future prospects. It cannot be dissolved at the will and pleasure of either or both parties, but only in consequence of certain kinds of misconduct.

Marriage before the Registrar.—A marriage may be contracted either with or without a religious ceremony. If without, it must take place in the office of the civil registrar within the canonical hours and in the presence of witnesses, the persons exchanging a declaration that they take each other for man and wife. It is necessary to give a clear twenty-one days' notice to the registrar of the district in which the parties have dwelt for seven days, or, if they are in different districts, to the registrars of both. The fees payable are 5s. to the registrar and 2s. to his superintendent.

The religious ceremony, when this is used, must take place between 8 a.m. and 3 p.m., either in the church of the ecclesiastical parish or district or in a chapel duly licensed and registered. Formerly the attendance of the registrar was necessary when the marriage was not a Church of England one, but by an Act which came into force in April, 1899, his presence is no longer essential, provided the minister is willing to keep the books and perform the duties of registration.

Marriage by Banns.—The other methods of marriage are by banns, by ordinary license, or by special license. The first is at present the most fashionable. Prior to the marriage the banns must be published in the respective parish churches of both bride and bridegroom on three consecutive Sundays, and one of the contracting parties must reside for at least fifteen days in the parish of the church in which the ceremony is to take place. The ceremony must be performed within three months of the final publication.

Marriage by License.—An ordinary license can be obtained by personal application at the registry office of the bishop of the diocese, or of his surrogate. It fixes the time and place for the ceremony, which must be performed in the parish church of the district in which one of the parties has resided for fifteen days prior to such issue. The fee, inclusive of all charges, is £2, 2s. But when the license is obtained in the country through

a clerical surrogate the cost varies from £2, 12s. 6*d.* to £3, 3s. according to the diocese.

Marriage by Special License.—A special license costs £30, but with it the parties may be married when and where they please. Though applied for at the Faculty Office it is obtained from the Archbishop of Canterbury, who exercises the right of withholding it if the circumstances of the case, which must be stated, do not meet with his approval. The ceremony performed must be that of the Church of England.

Mixed Marriages.—When the contracting parties are of different creeds considerable difficulties occur with respect to the religious ceremony and the future religious instruction of the possible issue of the union.

In the Roman Catholic Church mixed marriages—that is, marriages when one party is a Roman Catholic and the other is not—are regarded with disfavour and require a dispensation, which is never given unless the non-Catholic agrees and declares in writing:—(1) That all the children that may be born of the marriage shall be baptized and brought up in the Catholic faith; (2) that the Catholic party shall have full liberty for the practice of the Catholic religion; (3) that the Catholic party may endeavour, especially by prayer and the example of a good life, to convert the other to the Catholic faith; and (4) that no religious ceremony shall take place elsewhere than in the Catholic Church. It is, indeed, sometimes agreed between the parties themselves that the boys shall be brought up in the faith of the father and the girls in that of the mother, but the religious ceremony must in this case take place elsewhere than in a Catholic Church.

The Greek Church is equally stringent in its demands; but the promise is exacted, not in writing, but orally, during the celebration of the service and immediately preceding the benediction. Without a distinct understanding that this promise will be made and kept, the Archimandrite refuses to perform the religious rite; and the offending member of the “orthodox” church is considered outside its pale if the marriage takes place elsewhere.

Among the Jews, a member of their community who intermarried with a Christian was at one time lamented as one dead, a week of mourning being observed by the relatives. Even at the present day a mixed marriage is not recognized, and in all religious matters the parties are treated as if the tie between them were irregular. The children of a Jewish mother are considered Jews even if the father is a Christian, but no Jew can be born of a Christian mother. By a special Act a Jewish marriage may take place in a room without a special license, but a civil registrar must be present as one of the witnesses.

Marriage with a Foreigner.—When the contracting parties are of different nationalities, the resident foreign Consul should be applied to for information. Marriage between Europeans and natives of the East cannot be too strongly deprecated. An Englishwoman forming such an alliance is not visited by the wives of Europeans resident in the East, and is regarded as quite outside the pale of any society.

II. IN SCOTLAND.

Marriages in Scotland may be either regular or irregular. It is illegal for a minister to celebrate an irregular marriage; but both kinds of marriage are equally valid. Marriage in Scotland is really constituted by the consent *de præsenti* of the parties to take each other as husband and wife.

Regular Marriage.—A regular marriage is one celebrated by a minister in presence of at least two witnesses after proclamation of banns or publication of a notice by the Registrar. The banns must be published in the respective parish churches of both bride and bridegroom, and in strict law the proclamation should be made in every case on three consecutive Sundays. In practice, however, proclamation on two Sundays, or one only, is sufficient.

Instead of having banns proclaimed, each of the parties may give notice of the intended marriage to the Registrar of the parish or district in which he or she has resided for not less than fifteen days previous to the notice. The fee to be paid when the notice is given is 1s. 6*d.* The Registrar, after publishing the notice for seven days in the statutory manner, will give a certificate of due publication of notice of marriage on receipt of another fee of one shilling. This certificate is equivalent to a certificate of proclamation of banns.

The officiating minister may belong to any church. A Jewish rabbi, or the person appointed by the Quakers to celebrate marriages, may perform the ceremony among his own people. The marriage may be celebrated in any place and at any hour. There are no canonical hours to be observed in Scotland. A Presbyterian marriage is generally celebrated in the house of the bride's parents, but marriages in church are by no means uncommon now among the better classes, and seem to be growing commoner. Hotels are frequently used for the purpose where the number of guests is considerable.

The certificate of proclamation of banns, which will be obtained from the Session-clerk, or the Registrar's certificate of publication of notice, must be handed to the minister before the ceremony. He is liable to a penalty if he performs the ceremony without having had such a certificate produced to him.

Registration of Regular Marriage.—The marriage must be registered within three days under a penalty of £10. A schedule must be procured from the Registrar of the parish or district within which the marriage is to take place. It will be filled in by the Registrar, and must be produced to the minister at the marriage. After the marriage the schedule must be signed by the minister, the husband and wife, and two witnesses. It will then be handed to the parties, and must be delivered or posted to the Registrar within three days.

Irregular Marriages.—An irregular marriage may be constituted by the parties declaring that they take each other there and then as husband

and wife. The mere interchange of consent constitutes marriage in Scotland, if the parties are capable of marriage and there is no legal impediment between them. One of the parties must at the date of the declaration or consent to marriage have had his or her usual place of residence within Scotland, or have lived in Scotland for twenty-one days before the marriage. Witnesses are not essential to the validity of the marriage, but if there has been no writing by the parties, it will usually be impossible to prove the marriage unless witnesses were present when the declaration was made.

In certain circumstances an irregular marriage may be constituted without express declaration or consent. The actings of the parties in some cases may afford ground for asking the court to declare that they are married.

Registration of Irregular Marriage.—Persons who have contracted an irregular marriage may obtain authority to have it registered by applying to the sheriff within three months from the date of the marriage. On its being proved that the marriage took place, and that one of the parties had at the time his or her usual residence in Scotland, or had lived there for twenty-one days prior to it, the sheriff will grant a warrant to the Registrar to record the marriage. The Registrar's fee for an extract certificate of the marriage is 5s. This form of procedure is what is commonly known as "marriage before the sheriff"—a quite inaccurate description of the proceedings.

PREPARATIONS FOR A WEDDING.

Preliminary Arrangements.—If any relatives or friends of the bride and bridegroom are in Holy Orders they are usually invited to officiate or assist at the marriage. The father of the bride should write to the vicar of the parish, inquiring if the wedding may take place in his church, and naming the day and hour. If the vicar is not to perform the service it is courteous to desire his assistance. He should be informed whether the service is to be fully choral or otherwise. A card of invitation to the luncheon or reception should be sent to him, whether he is a personal friend of either family or not.

The bride's father, having previously ascertained the income and resources of the bridegroom, should require him to make an adequate settlement on his future wife which cannot be touched by creditors in the event of business failure or financial misfortune of any kind. Failing this, the bridegroom should insure his life, the policy being made out in her favour. He should also draw up a will making proper provision for her. This document is generally signed in the vestry at the conclusion of the ceremony. If signed before, it would be invalidated by the marriage.

The bride's dowry, or any property or money she may subsequently inherit, should be settled upon herself and the issue of the marriage, in such a manner that the capital cannot be spent, or in any way forestalled by

herself or her husband to the injury of her own prospects or those of her children. For fuller information about these legal matters see "The Law of Husband and Wife", Vol. III.

Wedding Invitations.—The wedding luncheon or reception should be given by the bride's parents or by her nearest relative. The invitations should be issued in the names of both host and hostess about three weeks before the wedding-day. They should be printed in silver on note-paper or cards. Specimens may be seen at any fancy stationer's, the usual cost being from £1 to £3 per hundred. For the wording of the invitation see Vol. III. p. 241.

If a reception is held it is not necessary to state the fact. Guests with whom the bride and bridegroom have not a visiting acquaintance may be asked to the church only.

If the wedding takes place in the country, the most suitable trains for arrival and departure are printed on the back of the card; and arrangements may be made with the railway company to attach saloon carriages to those trains for the convenience of guests. Carriages should be in readiness to convey the guests to the church, or to the house first, where refreshments (cold) should be served, unless those after the wedding are to be fairly substantial. Guests from the neighbourhood provide their own carriages. The charge for a brougham and pair averages 15s. for two hours, and for a brougham and one horse 7s. 6d. If the coachmen wear top-boots, white gloves, and favours, an additional charge is usually made, while on such occasions "tips" can hardly be avoided. The bridegroom provides only the carriage which conveys his bride and himself from the church to the house, and subsequently from the house to the railway-station. After the luncheon or reception, however, the bride's father frequently places his own carriage at the disposal of the newly-married pair.

Bridesmaids and Pages.—Special invitations are written or given by the bride to her most intimate unmarried friends whom she desires to be her bridesmaids. She arranges that they shall be suitably attired in costumes chosen by herself, with due consideration to any express desire on their part. They should, however, be chary of suggesting alterations, and should be disposed rather to fall in with her wishes. A French fashion, rarely followed in this country, permits each bridesmaid to choose the style and trimmings of her own gown, only the material of all being alike, though the various colours must be in harmony. This is an excellent plan when all the dresses are not supplied by the same *modiste*. The bridesmaids may vary in number from one to ten; they may be all young unmarried ladies or little girls only, or both. If the bride has any unmarried sisters, she should choose the eldest as her principal bridesmaid; but if she has none, she has the option of choosing a great friend in preference to her future sister-in-law.

She is often attended by two pages who carry her train, but only if her dress is very magnificent. Long loops of satin ribbon may be attached beneath the train, so that the pages may not raise it too high from the

ground. Their most usual costume is of the period of Elizabeth, Charles I., or Charles II. Reliable engravings should be consulted in order that the details may be perfectly correct.

The Bride's Dress.—The conventional wedding dress is often replaced by a travelling gown, preferably tailor-made. This is desirable when the wedding is a very quiet one, when the bride is no longer in her first youth, and certainly when she is a widow. A widow has no bridesmaids, though a married friend may perform the offices of bridesmaid-in-chief for her. It is usual for a widow to remove her first wedding-ring.

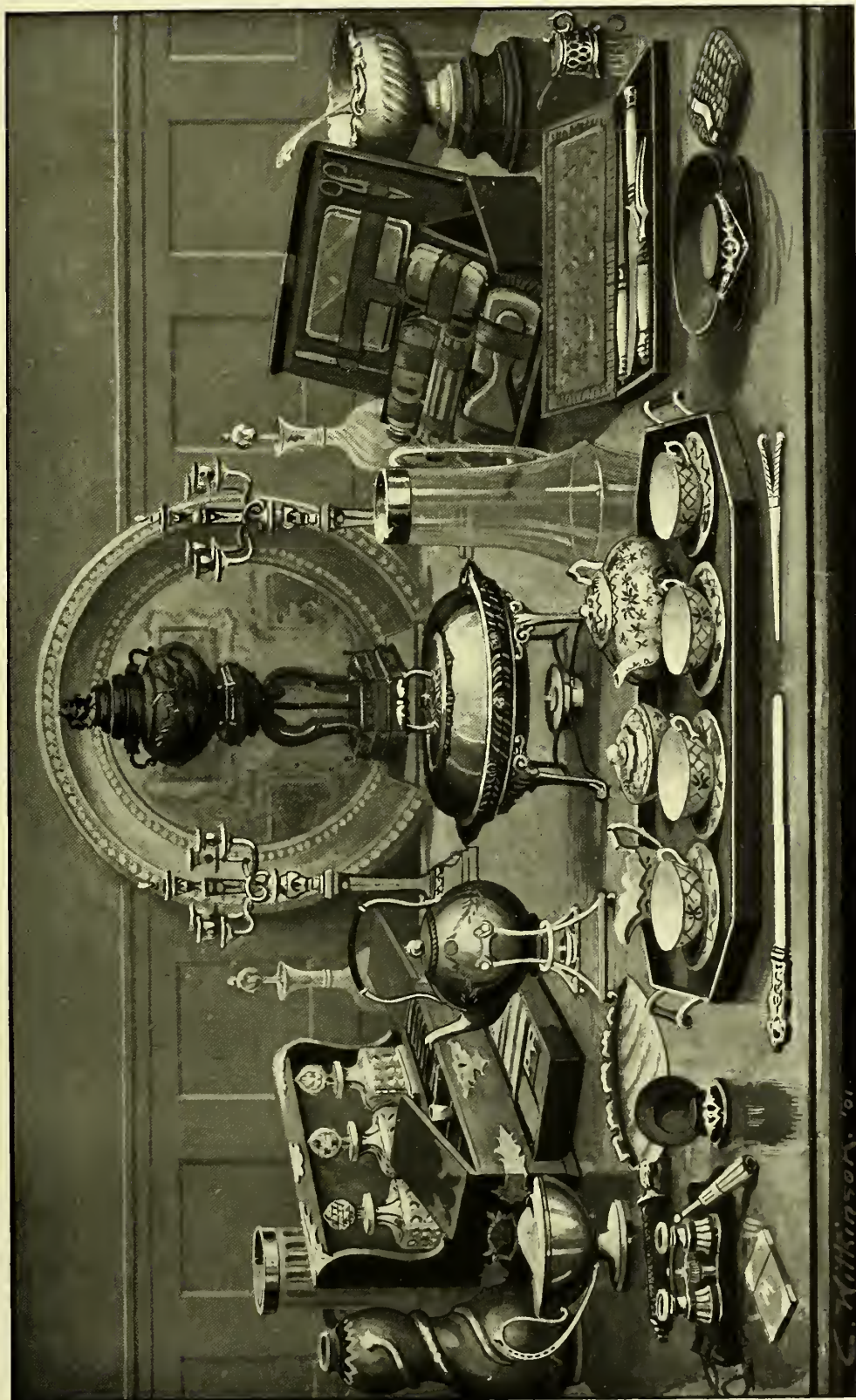
Preparation in the House.—At a wedding in the country, and also in town if space permits, the erection of a marquee provides a desirable addition to the accommodation afforded by a moderate-sized house. Here the wedding luncheon or reception may be given. House and tent should be connected by a covered way. A marquee, awnings, and red cloth for both house and church would be supplied by the firm entrusted with the order for refreshments. The price of hire varies from £2 to £5, according as the accommodation is required for 100 to 180 guests at a reception, or for 40 to 90 at luncheon. Flooring and a drugget double the expense. Awnings average £1, 1s. each, with 5s. additional for walling. At wedding receptions in the country a band is a great advantage. The fees for each musician average from £1, 1s. to £1, 10s., railway and other expenses not included.

In the house all hanging lamps should be hidden by masses of flowers and foliage. A large bell of white blossoms or a couple of smaller ones, suspended from an archway by silken cords, is an effective and appropriate decoration.

A bride whose home is in the country frequently prefers to be married from a hotel in some large town. The anxiety and trouble are thereby reduced to a minimum, and friends residing at a distance are more likely to put in an appearance at a town wedding. Everyone invited to a wedding, whether able to be present at it or not, should send a gift to the bride.

PRESENTS.

The Donors.—In the case of a short engagement presents are often sent before the invitations are issued. They should certainly reach the bride within a week of the wedding-day, to enable her to acknowledge each gift by a note of thanks before her final preparations engage all her time and attention. The value of the present should be in accordance with the means of the donor, or with the degree of relationship or intimacy with the bride or bridegroom. Only a relative or very old friend should send a cheque. The gift should be accompanied by a visiting-card (which is attached to it when the presents are exhibited), and by a letter conveying the donor's congratulations and good wishes. Friends of the bridegroom who are not



SOME WEDDING PRESENTS

C. Atkinson. '01.

acquainted with the bride send their presents to him, and he should forward them to the bride's home.

Display of the Presents.—If the bride has a very large circle of friends, or if her marriage is to be solemnized in India or some colony where her *fiancé* awaits her, an "At Home" is given by the bride's mother, when the presents are on view as well as on the wedding-day. A room is invariably set apart, with tables of various shapes and sizes ranged round, on which the gifts are displayed. Silver should be placed, if possible, against a dark background of plush or velvet. Long sprays of smilax, ivy, or virginian creeper, according to the season, should be arranged amongst the gifts; if there are any vases among the presents, they should be filled with choice flowers and disposed here and there. An ornamental basket of flowers, the handle tied with ribbon, with trails of smilax radiating towards the four corners of the table, makes a charming centre ornament.

If policemen are engaged to keep order at the church and house on the wedding-day, they usually receive 2s. 6*d.* each.

Presents from the Bridegroom.—The bridegroom must provide the wedding-ring, the bridal bouquet, and the bouquets for the bridesmaids, to whom he also presents some souvenir, which usually takes the form of jewelled lace-pins, bangles, or brooches. The form of the bouquets varies with the decrees of fashion, and occasionally baskets of flowers, flower muffs, and even "lucky slippers" are substituted. These innovations are most suitable when the bridesmaids are little children. The bridegroom generally presents a bouquet to the bride's mother. It is a mark of courtesy and respect. Patterns of the different materials and trimmings of the gowns should be supplied to the florist.

THE CEREMONY.

Accommodation of Guests.—When the number of guests likely to be present at the ceremony has been ascertained, a sufficient number of pews should be railed off for their accommodation, the first two or three rows being reserved for immediate relatives. Two of the groomsmen act as stewards and assist in seating the guests, who should arrive some time before the bride. Her relatives and friends sit on the right, and those of the bridegroom on the left side of the church. Guests do not carry prayer-books. Copies of the hymns to be sung during the service are printed in silver on leaflets and distributed in the pews. The name of the church, the date, and the initials of the bride and bridegroom are inscribed on them.

Floral Decorations.—For the floral decorations an estimate should be procured from a florist. The altar vases may be filled with fresh white flowers, and the chancel steps decorated with large palms and ferns in pots, which may be hired.

The Celebration.—The bridegroom, accompanied by the best man, should enter the church by way of the vestry, and await the bride at the foot of the chancel steps, on the right-hand side. His best man, who should be a bachelor, stands at his right a little in the rear.

The bridesmaids should form in a line on either side of the church porch or just inside the doorway, and be ready to follow the bride immediately she has passed between them. If she has sisters, they drive to church with her mother, who should take the arm of her son or some near relative in passing up the nave. Occasionally the bride is accompanied to the church by her mother and received at the church door by her father or guardian. She takes his right arm, and after slowly passing up the nave to the chancel, places herself on the left of the bridegroom. Her father stands a little to the rear, on her left side, to give her away. In Anglican Churches the bride is preceded up the nave by the choir and clergy, and sometimes, though not often, by her bridesmaids, she herself coming last of all in the procession. In this case the bridesmaids must pause and divide into two lines at the top of the aisle to allow her to pass between them, and must then close up again in rank behind her. When the service begins, the bride hands first her bouquet, and then her left glove, as soon as she has removed it, to her head bridesmaid, who should move forward to the right of the bride to receive them. The first portion of the service usually takes place outside the chancel, the bride and bridegroom afterwards advancing to the altar to receive the exhortation, either unattended or followed by the bridesmaids and best man.

Signing the Register.—At the conclusion of the ceremony the officiating clergyman leads the way to the vestry. He is followed by the bride and bridegroom, their parents, the best man and head bridesmaid, and the most important of the relatives and friends. Any or all of them may sign the register.

Meantime, wedding favours, which should consist of natural flowers, may be distributed amongst the guests in the church by the pages and little girl bridesmaids.

Departure from the Church.—The register having been signed, the bride should take her husband's left arm and pass down the nave. Her bridesmaids follow, no longer escorted by groomsmen, with the exception of the chief bridesmaid who takes the arm of the best man. It is not now usual for the bride to pause and shake hands with any of her friends, but she may occasionally do so if she knows that they are unable to attend the subsequent reception.

When the bride and bridegroom have driven off, the bride's mother follows them as quickly as possible in order that she may be able to receive the guests. She should be accompanied by the father of the bridegroom, and the bride's father should give his arm to the bridegroom's mother. The bridesmaids follow next in order, and then all the other guests without any regard to precedence.

Fees.—The fees paid by the bridegroom are discharged on his behalf

by the best man either immediately before or after the ceremony. The officiating clergyman may receive from £1, 1s. to £25, according to the means and position of the bridegroom; the vergers, from 5s. to 10s.; and the bell-ringer, 10s. The bride's father pays the choir, the organist, and the organ-blower, amounting in all to about £2, 2s.

After the Wedding.—Marriages are now so rarely solemnized before two o'clock that the wedding breakfast has been quite superseded by the wedding luncheon, which may be of two kinds, either a "sitting-down" or "standing-up" luncheon.

Wedding Luncheon.—A "sitting-down" luncheon is practically identical with a breakfast, and should be served in the dining-room or marquee. The guests, upon arriving at the house where it is to be given, are shown into the drawing-room and received by the hostess, who stands just within the doorway. After shaking hands with host and hostess they offer their congratulations to the bride and bridegroom, who take up their position together at the upper end of the room. Ladies do not remove their bonnets or hats; gentlemen leave their hats in the hall. The bride's father informs the principal gentlemen whom they are to take in to luncheon. When they are strangers to one another, the necessary introduction takes the following form: "Mrs. Smith, Mr. Johnson will have the pleasure of taking you in to luncheon". The bridegroom's mother and the bride's mother take precedence of all other ladies, and in going to luncheon the following order is observed:—

The bride and bridegroom; the bride's father, with the bridegroom's mother; the bridegroom's father, with the bride's mother; the best man and head bridesmaids; the other bridesmaids and groomsmen; the rest of the guests.

The usual arrangement at table is as follows:—The bride and bridegroom sit at the head; on the bride's left, her father and then the bridegroom's mother; on the bridegroom's right, the bride's mother and then the bridegroom's father. The bridesmaids and their groomsmen divide into two parties, and sit next the parents on either side of the table. Sometimes, however, the bride and bridegroom sit half-way down the side, with their parents on either hand, in which case the bridesmaids and their attendant gentlemen range themselves in line opposite, the chief bridesmaid and best man in the middle.

The menu varies a little with the season. A good example of a menu may be seen in fig. 626. The cost should be about 12s. per head.

The table should be decorated with flowers. The sweets and fruit are placed on it until required, when they are handed round, as are all the other dishes. The cake, immediately in front of the bride and bridegroom, may be wreathed and ornamented entirely with natural flowers instead of sugar cupids and doves, a large cornucopia or silver vase on top being filled either with white flowers or else the bride's bouquet. The price of wedding-cake is about 1s. 10d. per lb. A two-tier cake weighing about 45 lbs. costs about £7, when it is fully decorated in the usual style. A broad band of white

moiré ribbon may be tied round the lowest tier, finishing with a large bow at one side.

When the sweets have been handed, the bride makes the first incision in the cake, which is then removed to a side table and cut into a number of small pieces, which are passed round on a small silver salver. The gentleman of highest rank then proposes the health of the bride and bridegroom, for which the bridegroom returns thanks. Either of the two then proposes the health of the bridesmaids, which is suitably acknowledged by the best man. There the health-drinking should, and nearly always does, cease. The bride, accompanied by her head bridesmaid, should then leave the table to change her dress, while the guests either inspect the presents or await her return in the drawing-room.

A "standing-up" luncheon is much less formal, and the menu is more simple. Little attention is paid to precedence in going in to luncheon. The gentlemen assist the ladies and themselves to the different dishes, the wine being handed by servants. Decanters of sherry should be placed on the sideboard. Only the health of the bride and bridegroom is proposed.

Wedding Reception.—A wedding reception is more popular than a luncheon. It entails much less expense and is less formal, while many more guests may be invited to it. The following menu will serve as a specimen:—

Tea and coffee served with cream.		
Brown and white bread and butter.		
Balmoral Cake.	Madeira Cake.	
Queen Cake.	Sponge fingers.	
Wine biscuits.	Parisian biscuits.	
Fancy Pastry.		
Meringues.	Macaroons.	
Sandwiches.		
Foie Gras.	Ham.	Tongue.
Egg and Cress.	Savoury.	

Strawberry cream.	Lemon water.
Pink and white wafers.	

Still lemonade.	Claret cup.
Soda-water.	

Departure of the Bride and Bridegroom.—The bride need only be present for about half an hour at a wedding reception. She frequently bestows a sprig from her bouquet on her greatest friends, and finally presents it to her head bridesmaid. Her bridesmaids should on every occasion line the hall or porch to bid her farewell. Her luggage, with the exception of her dressing-case, should on no account pass through the hall amongst the guests. It should be taken, together with the bridegroom's, to the station on the morning of the wedding-day.

The head bridesmaid may throw a white satin slipper for "luck" after

the carriage, but it is now considered bad form to shower rice and confetti on a newly-married pair.

Wedding-cake and Cards.—Cake and cards are only sent now by a few old-fashioned people, or to relatives and friends who could not be present at the wedding.

Wedding Notices.—Notices of the wedding, which should be forwarded by the best man as soon as possible to the daily papers selected, should take the following form:—

CHANCELLOR—BIDDULPH. On the 7th inst., at Christ Church, Enfield, by the Rev. W. Ramsay, vicar of Buckworth, assisted by the Rev. Francis Cole, Walter Henry, son of Frederick Chancellor, Esq., of River Hall, Kent, to Margaret, daughter of George Biddulph, Esq., of the Grange House, Enfield.

The notice should be accompanied by a note from a responsible person, and a cheque or postal order.

Printed forms previously obtained by the bride from the offices of the society papers should be filled up and returned not later than one clear day after the wedding, together with photographs of the bride and bridegroom. No charge is made for the insertion, but it is usual to order a certain number of copies when the form is sent back.

In the New Home.—When the bride is settled in her new home she issues "At Home" cards to her friends, giving them the choice of two or more dates when she will be prepared to receive them. The presents should not be exhibited, but disposed in their several places. A bride should on no account call upon or accept an invitation from any lady who has not previously called upon her. Precedence is not now always accorded to a bride unless she happens to be paying a first visit to a country house shortly after her marriage.

After three months have passed she is no longer regarded as a bride, and has usually assumed all the duties and responsibilities of a wife.

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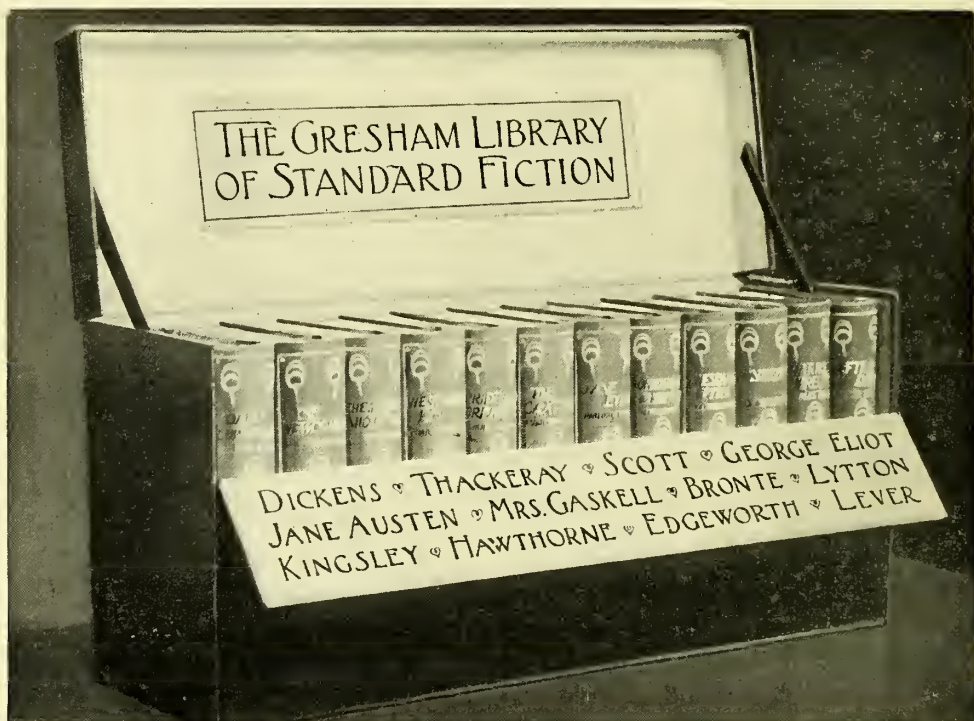
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